

LONGMANS'
SCHOOL HISTORY
OF INDIA

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LONDON
LONGMANS, GREEN, AND CO.
AND NEW YORK: 15 EAST 16TH STREET
1892

PREFACE

THIS book is strictly a manual for students, and everything has been sacrificed to the one object of making it thoroughly useful in this way.

The author was long engaged in educational pursuits in India, and has had considerable experience of the requirements of the Indian universities. He has aimed chiefly at producing such a text-book as might be sufficient for those who are preparing for these University Examinations. Even for others, however, it may be found useful, as containing a carefully digested epitome of the essentials of the subject.

The difficulty of bringing so wide a subject within convenient limits has been very great; hence the author has felt it necessary to omit anecdotes and details of sieges and battles, and to say what he had to say in the fewest possible words.

It is to be hoped that those who use this introductory text-book will be induced to read for themselves the many very excellent works in which almost everything connected with Indian history is to be found.¹ G. U. POPE.

BALLIOL COLLEGE, OXFORD,
May 1892.

¹ The student will find it useful to compare this brief sketch of Indian History with the Author's larger work : *Text-Book of Indian History* with Geographical Notes, Genealogical Tables, Examination Questions, and Chronological, Biographical, Geographical, and General Indexes. For the use of schools, colleges, and private students. By the Rev. G. U. POPE, D.D. With sixteen Maps.

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CHAPTER I

A N C I E N T I N D I A

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE BEGINNING OF AUTHENTIC
CONTINUOUS INDIAN HISTORY AT THE RISE OF THE
GHAZNĪVIDES.

PART I.—HINDŪ TRADITIONS.

1. Earliest Dates.—It has been said that in the history of India no certain *date* of a public event can be fixed before Alexander, B.C. 327 ; and no connected relation of the national transactions can be attempted until after the Muhammadan conquest, 1000-1024 A.D.

2. The Vêdas.—The most ancient Hindû books are the *Vêdas*, written in the sacred language of the Hindûs, the Sanskrit, and supposed to have been arranged in their present form by Vyâsa, about 1400 years B.C.

The Sanskrit is the most copious and refined of all languages, and contains a vast store of interesting and valuable literature, proving that the ancient Hindûs were not inferior even to the Greeks in mental powers.

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3. The Institutes of Manu.—The next work of consequence is the Institutes of *Manu*, the Hindû law-giver, with which students should make themselves acquainted. He gives an account of the condition of Hindû society at the time he wrote,

which is variously stated, from B.C. 900 to B.C. 300. But the materials are older than the work itself, and it may be supposed to represent mainly the state of things in India (*i.e.* in the N.W. Provinces and the Panjâb), ten centuries before the Christian era.

In connection with *Manu* may be noted—

(1.) **Castes.**—The division of the ancient Hindûs into the four *castes* of Brâhmans, Kshatryas, Vaisyas, and Sûdras, or the *sacerdotal*, the *military*, the *industrial*, and the *servile* classes.

(2.) **The Twice-born.**—The three first classes are called ‘twice-born,’ a title given to all who have been invested with the sacred thread.

(3.) The philological fact of the common origin of the Sanskrit, Zend, Greek, Latin, Gothic, Slavonic, and Keltic languages seems to show that the ancestors of the various tribes of men, who use dialects belonging to this great family of languages, have spread abroad from some central home, whence the twice-born found their way as immigrant conquerors into Hindûstân. This ancient people called themselves ARYAS.¹ The original inhabitants were, for the most part, driven into the mountains where they now dwell. By their conquerors these were called DASYUS, or *slaves*.

(4.) This ancient system of caste has been much changed. There are more than 150 different castes in India at this time, with innumerable subdivisions.

(5.) **Vêdic Religion.**—The religion of Manu is mainly Vêdic, and differs from modern Hindûism; in this, and in many other respects, the Hindûs having probably changed much since the days of Manu.

(6.) **Village Communities.**—In one particular, however, the Hindû social system has been little altered since the days of Manu. The village communities, forming little republics, still exist, and manage their own affairs as far as they are permitted; having rude municipal institutions, effectual for the purposes of government and protection.

These townships are under *Headmen*, who are supposed to possess the confidence of both the Government and the people.

¹ Arya=*noble* [Arians, Aryans].

and who hold a portion of land from the Government, while they also receive fees from the people.

Besides the headman there are an accountant, a watchman, a money-changer, a smith, a barber, and other functionaries, who receive payment from the village revenues.

4. Ancient Homes of the Hindû Race.—The first notice we have of the Hindûs in Hindûstan is in a passage of Manu, in which two tracts of country, called *Brahmāvarta* and *Brahmarshidêsa*, are spoken of as the early residences of the people.

The *Brahmāvarta* is the tract between the Saraswatî and Caggar (or *Drishadvatî*) rivers, about 100 miles to the N.W. of Delhi. Here the Aryans were settled probably before 1600 B.C. The *Brahmarshidêsa* is the country to the east of this, up to the Jamna, with all to the north, including North Bahâr. Here dwelt the ancient princes and sages of Hindû mythology. Here the magnificent Sanskrit language was perfected, and here the decimal notation was invented.

The *Mulhyadêsa* (=middle land) extended from Allâhâbâd to the Satlaj, and from the Himâlayas to the Vindhya.

5. The Purânas.—The Purânas (=ancient mythological works) begin with *Oudh* (Ayodhya), whence the princes of the Solar and Lunar dynasties sprang. The former were supported by the Brâhmâns, and the latter by the Kshatriyas.

6. Râma.—Rama, whose history has doubtless foundation in fact, is the great hero of the Solar race. His story is told in the *Râmâyana*, an epic (composed by the great poet *Vâlmiki*, probably in the second century, B.C.), of which versions exist in all the languages of India. He invaded the Dakhan, which he found filled with monkeys, i.e. with Gônds, Kols, Khônds, and other uncivilised aborigines, by whose aid he conquered *Râvana*, the king of Lankâ or Ceylon (perhaps B.C. 1200). Traces of this expedition exist (see Index).

7. The Mahâ Bhârata.—The MAHÂ BHÂRATA is a series of legends of the Lunar dynasty (possibly about B.C. 240).

It gives an account of the war between the kindred families of the *Pândûs* and *Kurus*, assisted by many tribes, speaking different languages, for the territory of *Hastinâpûra*. Krishna, now worshipped as an incarnation of Vishnu, was an ally of the Pândus. He had founded a principality in Gujarât. This war raged probably between 1400 and 1300 B.C. The great battle was fought at Tanêshwar, thirty miles west of Delhi. The Sanskrit name for the place of battle is KURUKSHÊTRA (the field of the Kurus).

Bahâr.—In the Mahâ Bhârata mention is made of the king of *Magadha*, or Bahâr.

He was the head of many chieftains.

(1.) **Sahâ-dêvâ.**—*Sahâ-dêvâ* was king at the time of the Mahâ Bhârata war.

(2.) The thirty-fifth in succession from him was Ajâta-Satru, in whose reign flourished Sâkya Muni, or Gôtama, the founder of Buddhism, the most widely extended religion in the world. His death probably took place in B.C. 543.

(3.) **Nanda.**—The sixth king from Ajâta-Satru was *Nanda*, of the Nâga dynasty, about 400 B.C.

(4.) **Chandragupta.**—The ninth from Nanda was *Chandragupta*, called Sandracottus by the Greeks. He was the founder of what is called the *Mauryan* dynasty, B.C. 315.

(5.) **Asôka.**—The third from Chandragupta was the famous patron of Buddhism, ASÔKA (B.C. 260-220), who assumed the name of Piyadâsî (= *beloved of the gods*). Edicts of his favouring Buddhism have been found sculptured on rocks in Cattack, Gujarât, and elsewhere.

Magadha.—Under these kings Magadha rose to great eminence. Splendid roads ran across the country from Palibothra (probably on the site of, or not far from, the modern Patna) to the Indus and to Broach. Maritime expeditions introduced the Hindû religion into Jâva in B.C. 75.

8. The Two Great Æras, or B.C. 56, A.D. 78.—The æra of Vikramâditya, king of Oujein in Mâlwah, is B.C. 57; and that of Sâlivâhana, whose capital was Raithun on the Godâvarî, is A.D. 78.

The former is current in Hindûstân, and the latter in the Dakhan.

9. The Hindû Religions.—The present Hindû religion, or the aggregate of the religions which go under the name of Hindûism, have their root in the Vêdas; but owe much to the Purânas and other poetical works we have mentioned. These need not here be discussed.

The religions of the Buddhists and Jains have been at times extensively prevalent in India.

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10. Buddhism.—*Buddhism* originated in S. Bahâr at Gayâ (Gya). Its founder was *Sâkyâ Muni*, or *Gôtama*, who died 543 B.C. It rejected Brâhmanism and caste, and in the reign of Asôka was triumphant throughout Hindûstân. The sacred books of the Buddhist are called the TRI-PITAKI (=three caskets). It spread into Ceylon about the end of the third century B.C., and afterwards into Tibet and China (A.D. 65). It was the prevailing religion in Benâres until the eleventh century. The Brâhmins after a long struggle succeeded in expelling it from India before the end of the twelfth century. Its greatest opponent in the Dakhan was *Sankarâ Âchûrya*, who flourished in the eighth or ninth century A.D. The magnificent cave temples evacuated by the Buddhists were afterwards in many cases, as at Ellôra, taken possession of by the Brâhmins and filled with sculptures of their own.

11. The Jains.—The *Jain* system is midway between the pseudo-spiritual Buddhism and Brâhmanism. The Jains retain caste, and acknowledge the whole Hindû Pantheon, but regard certain saints (twenty-four in number), called *Tirthankâtras* (=those who by ascetic practices have crossed the ocean of human existence), as superior to the gods.

This system originated about 600 A.D., and declined after 1200 A.D. It chiefly prevailed in the south and in Gujarât.

Jains abound still in Gujarât and in Kanara. They have always been a learned people. Tamil literature owes to them some of its finest compositions. Jain authors were the real refiners of that exquisite language. They were much persecuted in Madura, and finally rooted out from there by *Kûna Pândiyôn*, their leaders being impaled, probably in the eleventh century.

12. Sanskrit Literature.—The chief Sanskrit works have been referred to in the preceding sections. There are, however, innumerable important compositions extant in Sanskrit in almost every department of literature, especially excelling in whatever can be evolved by contemplation.

Indian civilisation was very ancient, and of a high order.

The Sanskrit dramas still existing are about sixty. Of these the most celebrated is the *Sakuntalâ* of Kâlidâsa (the Hindû Virgil), who is sometimes said to have flourished at the court of Vikramâditya, and to have been one of the nine gems of his court, but who probably lived in the fifth century (A.D.).

The Râmâyana, the Mahâ Bhârata, and the Puranas have been referred to.

13. Philosophy.—The Hindûs have ever been addicted to the study of *Philosophy*, and six systems are enumerated, which were recognised, though more or less in various ways inconsistent with their religious tenets. These systems, greatly modified by Western influences, still possess much power over the minds of the people in all parts of the land.

In these are discussed, with great subtlety, most of the metaphysical questions which have exercised the intellect of the philosophers of ancient Greece and of modern Europe.

Vêdânta.—Of these the Vêdânta, which is a system of Pantheism in its modern form, teaches that there is really nothing existing but the Supreme, and that all souls are finally to be absorbed into the Divine essence. This philosophy exercises much practical effect on the minds of the people at the present time.

PART II.—INFORMATION REGARDING INDIA FROM EUROPEAN SOURCES.

14. Ancient Writers on India.—The references in ancient writers to India are vague. Solomon's apes, peacocks, and ivory came probably from Ceylon. Hindû merchants in very ancient times sailed westwards, and the harbours of the Malabâr Coast and of Ceylon were crowded with vessels from the West; but we have no authentic details of those times. The conquest of India by Bacthus is mere poetical fable; and the expeditions of Semiramis have no authentic foundation.

15. Sesostris, 1308 B.C.—It is difficult to say how much confidence should be placed in the account given us by Diodorus Siculus of the conquests of *Sesostris*. He was a king of Egypt in 1308 B.C. Aiming at universal empire, he fitted out a fleet of 400 ships, which conquered all the regions from the Red Sea to India.

Meanwhile he himself is said to have led an army by land across the Ganges to the Eastern Ocean; but his conquests, even if real, had no permanent result.

16. The Ancient Persian Invasion.—Darius, the son of Hystaspes (B.C. 518-485), conquered Eastern Kâbul, the Panjâb, and part of Sind. He aimed at something more than mere conquest; desiring to fuse the conquered provinces into one homogeneous empire. He divided his empire into twenty satrapies, of which India was one. The Indian tribute is said to have amounted to a sum equal to two-fifths of the whole tribute paid by the other nineteen.

Darius contented himself with the conquest of the Panjâb; but, under his direction, Skylax, his admiral, explored the Indus, sailing down the stream into the Indian Ocean, round Arabia, and up the Red Sea to Egypt.

17. The Ancient Grecian Invasion.—Alexander the Great, the conqueror of Persia, after the defeat and death of Darius,

passed on towards India, ever the goal of each conqueror, whose wealth was to recompense the soldier for all his toils. In 330 B.C., he founded the important frontier city of Herât, and wintered at 'Alexandria apud Caucasum,' probably Beghrâ, near Kâbul. He then founded the Bactrian kingdom.

After three years spent in these Scythic regions, he passed through the Khyber Pass, crossed the Indus at Attock in April 327 B.C., and encountered and defeated Pôrus near Gujarât, between the Jhîlam and the Chinâb, near the spot where the Sikhs sustained their last crushing defeat (ch. x.).

Taxiles, who then ruled over the country from the Indus to the Jhîlam, seems to have aided Alexander; and Pôrus, too, whom Alexander treated generously, became his faithful ally.

From thence he advanced to the banks of the Satlaj, being intent upon the conquest of Magadha, of the magnificence of whose capital, Palibothra, he had heard. But his soldiers refused to advance, and with deep sorrow and mortification he again turned his face towards Greece. His first care was to construct a fleet to convey his troops down the Satlaj to the Indus, and thus home.

The Greek Admiral Nearchus.—At or near the mouth of the Indus was an ancient city called Patâla, whose site cannot be verified. The Râja of this region treated Alexander with kindness, and he remained there for some time. He then left his Admiral Nearchus to proceed by sea, while he himself with a part of the army marched back through Belûchistân, or Gedrosia. Nearchus sailed on the 9th September 326 B.C., and arrived at the mouth of the Euphrates, after a voyage which is considered to be one of the most memorable in ancient history. He joined Alexander, who died in 323 B.C., at Babylon.

Alexander's views were enlarged. Added to his wonderful military genius was a wish to connect all nations by the ties of commerce and mutual self-interest.

18. The Indo-Bactrian Kingdom.—The Indo-Bactrian kingdom on the death of Alexander fell to Seleucus, one of his ablest generals, who became King of Syria. Chandragupta was

then King of Magadha, and had taken *Pâtaliputra* (Palibothra) from the Râja of the Prasii. (**Chandragupta and Seleucus, B.C. 312.**) He is said to have been the illegitimate son of the preceding king, by a woman of the barber caste, whose name was *Murâ*, and to have possessed extraordinary ability and energy. From his mother's name his race is called the Mauryan (p. 4). Against him Seleucus marched, and a great battle was fought, with what issue is uncertain; but a treaty was made, and Seleucus gave his daughter in marriage to the Indian king, and gave up to him the provinces east of the Indus for a subsidy of fifty elephants.

Megasthenes.—Megasthenes was appointed the Greek ambassador at the Court of Palibothra. He has given full accounts of the state of India at that time. The stories of the grandeur of Chandragupta, of his army, and of his capital, are well-nigh incredible.

The Greek kingdom of Bactria became independent under a rebel called Theodotus, and finally fell under a Saka-Scythian (or a Târtar) tribe from Transoxiana about B.C. 126.

The Andhras.—The family of Chandragupta retained the kingdom for ten generations, and were followed by three Sûdra dynasties, the last of which, the *Andhras*, ended in A.D. 436.

19. Bengâl.—In Bengâl, a dynasty of Vidyu kings preceded one of Pâla kings, which was followed by one of Sênas; which last was subverted by the Muhammadans in A.D. 1203. They are said to have reigned over great part of India. Their capital was Gour, from A.D. 785 to 1040. But there were contemporary dynasties reigning in Kanouj, Delhi, Ajmîr, Mêwâr, and Gujarât, of which little is known certainly.

20. Oujein or Ujein.—We come then to Vikramâditya in Oujein, whose successor, after many generations, was Râja Bhôja (from whom Bhôpâl takes its name), who reigned till about the end of the eleventh century (p. 4).

Chinese Pilgrims.—About A.D. 400 a Chinese monk, Fah-Hian, a Sraman (*Buddhist*) came to India to procure authentic information about Buddhist works. He lived three years at Patali-puttra when he studied Pali and the Buddhist Scriptures. About

626 to 645 A.D. another pilgrim, Hiuen Tshang, a Sraman also, came to India to study Pali and the Buddhist Scriptures. He visited Peshawar, Mathura on the Jumna-Karong, and Ayodhyâ. He studied in a vast Buddhist monastery of 10,000 monks at Nalanda (near Gayâ). From these pilgrims we learn much about the India of the seventh century.

CHAPTER II

THE PRE-MOGUL MUHAMMADAN PERIOD

PART I.—SUMMARY ; 664-1526 A.D.

1. **Struggles of Hindûs against Muhammadans, 1001-1740.**

—From about the beginning of the eleventh century of the Christian era the history of India is chiefly occupied with the struggles of the Hindû races against Muhammadan conquerors of various tribes. This period lasted about 750 years (from 1001 to 1740): from the first expedition of Muhammad of Ghaznî to the taking of Delhi by Nâdir Shâh.

2. **The First Invasion of India by Muhammad Kasim, 711.**

—Beyond merely piratical expeditions, which reached Mûltân in 664, there was no systematic Musalman invasion of India till the time of the Khalif Walid, when Muhammad Kasim, nephew of the Governor of Basra (Bussora), landed at Dêwâl (Debal), a city somewhere near the modern Karâchi, and, after many severe engagements, in one of which, in 712, Dâhir, Râja of Sind, fell, overran the whole of Sind. His attempt to conquer Hindûstân is said to have been frustrated by Bâpû, the Râjpût of Chîtôr, from whom the Rânas of Oudipûr (Udayapûr) trace their descent. His career was cut short by a Hindû princess, who brought against him a false accusation, which cost him his life. From that time the Muhammadan sway in Sind seems to have been merely nominal for five hundred years; though the conquered princes embraced Muhammadanism.

3. **The Rise of the Ghaznîvides.**—We now come to the race which effected the permanent conquest of a great part of Hindûstân. A dynasty of Tatârs called the Samânîs, ruled in

Khorâsân and Transoxiana, often called *Maver-ul-Nahar*=*the land of the rivers*, in the ninth century. Their capital was BOKHÂRA. The fifth prince of that dynasty was Abdulmelk, who had a Tûrki slave called Alptegîn, who rose to be Governor of Khorâsân. Driven from thence by the revolutions consequent on the death of his master, he retreated to Ghaznî, where he made himself independent. He died A.D. 976.

The First War between India and Ghaznî.—A slave of Alptegîn, called Sabaktegîn, married his daughter, and succeeded him. Jaipâl, Râja of Lâhôr, attacked him in the valley beyond Peshâwar, but was repulsed. Sabaktegîn (father of Mahmûd) now advanced in his turn, and Jaipâl, with the Râjas of Delhi, Kanauj, Kalinjar, and Âjmîr, met him in battle.

996-1001.—The Muhammadan was victorious; and, after plundering the adjacent districts, took possession of the country up to the Indus. Sabaktegîn died in 996.

PART II.—THE FIRST AFGHÂN DYNASTY; 996-1186.

4. Mahmûd of Ghaznî, 996-1030.—Sabaktegîn left a son, MAHMÛD, probably illegitimate, then in his thirtieth year. He had been the companion of his father in his expeditions, and shared his ambition. This Mahmûd made himself fully independent in the government of Khorâsân, obtained a confirmation of his right from the Khalif at Baghdâd, and assumed the title of Sultân.

He is known in history as the 'Iconoclast.' The list of his expeditions is variously given: the following are the most important.

Twelve Expeditions.—His first expedition into India was made in A.D. 1001. He was attended by 10,000 chosen horse. His standard was black, a fitting emblem of his deeds. He defeated Jaipâl of Lâhôr, near Peshâwar; took him prisoner; crossed the Satlaj to *Batinda*, which he stormed; and then returned to Ghaznî. Batinda was a fortress of prodigious strength, one of the residences of the Râja of Lâhôr. It now belongs to the Râja of Pattiâla.

Jaipâl, weary of disasters, abdicated in favour of his son, Ânand-Pâl, and ordered a funeral pyre to be erected, which he ascended, setting fire to it with his own hands.

Mamûd's second expedition, in 1004, was against the Râja of Bhâtia (or Bhêra), near Mûltân. His third, in 1005, was against Abûl Fath Lodî, chief of Mûltân. His fourth, in 1008, was a more important one, against Ânand Pâl, who had formed a confederacy of the neighbouring Râjas, and with his compatriots advanced to meet him, with all the ardour of men defending their independence and their faith. Mahmûd gained a victory, bought, however, with immense loss. He then directed his course to Nâgarkôt (now Kângra), on the southern slope of the Himâlayas, a wealthy shrine, which he took and plundered, returning to Ghaznî with incalculable wealth in gold and precious stones.

His fifth expedition to India was in 1010. In this he took Mûltân.

The sixth expedition was to Tanêshwar, between the Saraswatî and the Jamna, which he sacked. Mahmûd meanwhile made inroads into the mountain districts of Ghôr, and finally, in 1016, took Samarkhand and Bokhâra. But the great business of his life was to despoil India.

His seventh and eighth Indian expeditions were into Kâshmîr. In these he encountered great perils.

The ninth expedition in 1017-1019 was on a larger scale. He was now determined to penetrate into the very heart of Hindûstân. His army consisted of 100,000 horse and 20,000 foot, gathered from all parts of his dominions, with which he marched from Peshâwar along the foot of the mountains, crossing the Panjab rivers as near to their source as possible, and presented himself before Kanauj. The king threw himself on the generosity of Mahmûd, who admitted him to his friendship; and, after three days, left his city uninjured.

From thence he advanced to Muttra, sacred as the birth-place of Krishna, which was given up to the soldiers for twenty days.

Lâhôr occupied 1021: the first permanent Muhammadan Settlement in India.—His tenth and eleventh expeditions were undertaken in A.D. 1022 and 1023. In these he attacked, but

unsuccessfully, the Râja of Kalinjar. In the first of these expeditions Jaipâl II., son of Ânand-Pâl, opposed him; and the result was the permanent occupation of Lâhôr by a Muhammadan garrison. A viceroy was stationed there. This was the foundation of the Musalmân empire in India (comp. ch. x.).

Twelfth Expedition, 1024. Sômnâth.—Mahmûd now made his last and greatest effort. He resolved to plunder and destroy the celebrated shrine of Sômnâth, in Gujarât. The march was long, including 350 miles of desert; and he made extraordinary preparations for it. He passed through Âjmiîr to Anhalwâra, the ancient capital of Gujarât, all fleeing before him. The struggle before Sômnâth was terrible, and lasted three days. The Râjpûts assembled from all parts to defend their holiest shrine, and nothing but the bravery and enthusiasm of Mahmûd himself gained the victory. The image at Sômnâth was one of the twelve great lingas, or Phallic emblems of Siva, set up over India.

The treasure obtained was immense. Mahmûd remained in Gujarât a year. His homeward march was attended with terrible sufferings and privations.

Death of Mahmûd of Ghaznî, 1030.—Mahmûd died at Ghaznî on the 29th April 1030, in his sixty-third year.

5. Successors of Mahmûd, 1030—His Twin Sons—Muhammad I.—There was a contest for the throne between Muhammad and Masâud, the twin sons of Sultân Mahmûd. The former was first crowned, but speedily dethroned and blinded by Masâud.

The Seljuks, a Tûrkî tribe, now invaded Ghaznî, and Masâud was compelled to withdraw to India. We need not pursue the history of Ghaznî further; for the Muhammadan power was now at home in the Panjâb. Lâhôr had taken the place of Ghaznî.

Masâud I.—Masâud, who was generous and valiant, though unfortunate, was now dethroned, and the blind Muhammad again placed on the throne. In 1040, Maudûd (**Maudûd, 1040-1049**), son of Masâud, overcame his rivals, and contrived to reinstate himself in Ghaznî.

The Râja of Delhi meanwhile revived the spirit of the Hindûs,

and drove the Muhammadans from every stronghold except Lâhôr itself. Sultân Abûl Rashîd, the eldest son of Mahmûd I., who had strangely succeeded his grand-nephew, in 1051 recovered the Panjâb. Soon after, all but three of the house of Mahmûd of Ghaznî were assassinated.

Masâud II., 1098-1114.—Masâud II., one of the three survivors, resided at Lâhôr, and carried the Muhammadan arms beyond the Ganges, 1098.

6. Beirâm the Ghaznîvide, or Bahram, 1118-1153.—Beirâm, his son, succeeded in 1118. He was a patron of learning, and reigned long and prosperously; yet he achieved the ruin of his race by an act of treachery. Kutb-ud-dîn Sûr, the Prince of Ghôr, in the hills east of Hôrât, had married Beirâm's daughter. Some quarrel arose, and Beirâm murdered his son-in-law. The result was a war, in which *Allâ-ud-dîn Ghôrî*, a brother of the murdered prince, took Ghaznî, and gave it up for seven days to his victorious army, by whom it was utterly devastated. His name is thus handed down to us among those of the ruthless destroyers and scourges of the world. 'Burner of the world' is his title in history.

Beirâm fled toward India, but died broken-hearted on his journey. His son Khûsrû and his grandson Khûsrû Malik reigned in Lâhôr to 1186; when, with the latter, the race of Sabaktegîn became extinct.

PART III.—MUHAMMAD OF GHÔR, A.D. 1186-1206.

SECOND DYNASTY: THE GHÔRIANS.

7. Muhammad Ghôrî, 1186.—Khûsrû Malik, the last of the Ghaznîvides, was dethroned and put to death by a nephew of the destroyer of Ghaznî, whose name was Shahâb-ud-dîn or *Muhammad Ghôrî*, the first and last of his family that ruled in India, and the real founder of the Muhammadan dominion in Hindûstân.

After his conquest of Lahôr in 1186, he had still to conquer the Râjpût princes of India.

Râjpût Kings.—Hindûstan Proper had been till recently under the sway of four of these princes:—(1) the King of Delhi of the Tomâra tribe; (2) the King of Âjmir of the Chohân tribe; (3) the Râthôr chief of Kanauj; and (4) the Baghila chief of Gujârat, whose capital was Anhalwâra. The Tomâra and Chohân tribes had just been united under Prithwî Râja, King of Âjmir; and it is said that 120 Hindu chiefs acknowledged him as their leader.

Pânipat (first battle; sometimes called first Battle of Narâin).—With this prince, who was the Paladin of the Râjpût race, the Ghôrian fought his first battle on the plains of Pânipat, and sustained a complete defeat, in 1191. He then returned to Ghaznî, but, having assembled another army, in 1193 he again met his old antagonist, on the banks of the Saraswatî, not far from the former spot, between Tanêshwar and Kurnal. (**Decisive Battle of Tanêshwar, 1194; sometimes called the second Battle of Tirûri, or Narâin.**) This time he was victorious, and Prithwî Râja, being made prisoner, was slain in cold blood. Âjmir was then taken and sacked, and its inhabitants were either slain or sold as slaves. Muhammad after this went back to Ghaznî, leaving Kutb-ud-dîn, who had been his slave, as his viceroy. He returned the next year, defeated Jaichand, the Râthôr Râja of Kanauj, and took Kanauj and Benâres. Thus fell the second great Râjpût state.

The Râthôrs fled to Mârwâr, where their descendants long reigned. The conquest of Gujarât, Oudh, Bengâl, and Bahâr soon followed; and before the death of Muhammad in 1206, there was a settled Muhammadan dominion over nearly the whole of Hindûstân, except Mâlwa.

Death of Muhammad of Ghôr, 1206.—He was assassinated by a band of Gakkars, a wild tribe, having their home in the mountains north of the Panjab, who had been subjected by him. With him Indian history ceases to have any connection with the Ghôri dynasty. He is reckoned as the first Muhammadan king of Delhi.

PART IV.—THE SLAVE KINGS, A.D. 1206-1288.

THE THIRD DYNASTY OF AFGHÂNS.

8. Kutb-ud-dîn—The Slaves of the Ghôrians.—Muhammad of Ghôr, having no sons, was in the habit of training, and adopting, young Tûrki slaves taken in war, who were chiefly of noble extraction, and of promoting them to offices of trust. This was a common practice with other Muhammadan rulers also, and gave rise to the numerous dynasties of 'slave kings.' Muhammad's nephew, Mahmûd, was his nominal successor; but Eldôz, one of these slaves, seized on Kâbul and Kandahâr, while another of them, KUTB-UD-DÎN, retained possession of Delhi and the provinces subject to it. He is thus the first Muhammadan Emperor of Delhi, and the founder of the Slave dynasty of Indian rulers.

Kutb ruled about twenty years as viceroy, and four years independently after the death of Ghôrî. He was a great warrior, generous to his subjects, and faithful to his master. His generosity indeed passed into a proverb.

The lofty *Kutb Minar* in Delhi preserves his memory.

9. Âram, 1210, 1211.—His son *Âram*, a weak ruler, whose viceroys everywhere rebelled against him, ruled but for one year, and was dethroned by *Altamsh*.

10. Altamsh, 1211-1236.—*Altamsh*, the greatest of the dynasty, was a slave of Kutb, who had given him his daughter in marriage. He reigned from A.D. 1211 to 1236.

His real name was Shams-ud-din. *Altamsh* signifies *sixty*, that being the number of tomans paid for him by Kutb.

Ghengîz Khân, 1217.—It was in 1217 that the alarm reached India of the advance of the Moguls under Ghengîz Khân, who had gained the supremacy over all the Tatâr tribes, and in 1210 was acknowledged Khân of the Tatârs from the wall of China to the Volga. He overran all Central and Western Asia, and in his course overthrew Muhammad, the Sultân of Kharîsm (KHIVA), who had slain his ambassadors. Muhammad's son, Jalâl-ud-dîn,

contested every inch of ground with the Moguls, until driven to the Indus. He there fought a great battle, and, being defeated, took refuge in India. Altamsh courteously but firmly refused by protecting him to afford to Ghengiz Khân a pretext for invading India. Thus, for the time, India escaped the ravages of the Moguls. These attacks were, however, constantly repeated, till they became successful in 1526.

The Victories of Altamsh.—Altamsh now subdued Nâsir-ud-dîn and Gheîâz-ud-dîn, a successor of Bhaktiyâr Khilji, who had made themselves independent in Sind and Bengâl.

He also reduced Rintambôr in Râjpûtâna, Mândû, Gwâlîôr, and Ūjein; and subdued Chahâr Dêva, Râja of Marwâr, who was now the chief of the Hindû princes. With these victories he completed the subjugation of Hindûstân. He received investiture from the Khalif of Baghdâd. He died in 1236.

11. Rukn-ud-dîn, 1236.—*Rukn-ud-dîn*, a licentious, cruel, and imbecile ruler, succeeded his father, and was deposed in seven months by his sister Razîa.

12. Razîâ Begum, 1236-1239.—*Razîa* Begum was a beautiful and well-educated woman, and an energetic and skilful ruler. She is remarkable as the only female who has personally ruled in Delhi. Nûr Jehân's name was added to that of her husband's on the coins, and Queen Victoria is 'Empress of India'; but Razîâ was the only queen that ever actually occupied the throne of the Indian empire. Dressed in a tunic and cap like a man, she sat daily administering justice. Her fondness for favourites marred the effect of her virtues and talents. A Tûrkî chief called Altûnia rebelled, defeated her, and took her prisoner. She won over her captor, and married him; but the nobles carried on the civil war, which ended in the defeat and death of herself and her husband, after she had reigned three years and six months. India was now a prey to rapine, full of rebellions, reduced almost to desolation.

13. Beirâm, 1239-1241.—During the reign of Beirâm, her brother, a weak and cruel man, the Moguls invaded Lâhôr; and he was imprisoned and slain by his own soldiers, after a reign of two years and two months.

14. Mas'ūd III., 1241-1244.—Mas'ūd, son of Rukn-ud-din, succeeded. Two invasions of the Moguls were repelled in this reign. He was cruel and licentious, and was deposed after a reign of four years.

15. Mahmūd II., 1244-1266.—Nâsir-ud-din Mahmūd was a grandson of Altamsh, and retired and studious in his habits. Affairs were left in the hands of a Tûrkî slave of Altamsh, called Gheiâz-ud-din Balban, who had married an aunt of the emperor, and whose daughter Mahmūd himself had married. The emperor himself led the life of a dervish.

The invasions of the Moguls continued, but were successfully repelled. Various Hindû chiefs had rebelled during the late reigns; these were again reduced to obedience, and especially the Râja of Narwâr was overthrown.

An embassy was sent by Ilulâkû Khân, grandson of Ghengîz Khân, and the destroyer of the Baghdâd Khalîfate, to Mahmūd's court. It was received with great pomp. Mahmūd died in 1266, after a prosperous reign of more than twenty years.

16. Balban, 1266-1286.—*Balban* (or *Balin*), originally a slave, succeeded, having long possessed all the kingly power.

Prince Muhammad, his eldest son, was a great patron of literature. Amîr Kûsrû, a Persian poet, resided at his court, and Sâdî, the greatest of Persian authors, sent him a copy of his works.

Mêwât was, as usual, in a state of disorder and insurrection. To quell this, Balban is said to have slain 100,000 men. He also wisely cleared it of forests, and thus laid it open to cultivation. A revolt in Bengâl, made by Tughral, the governor, was also crushed.

The great misfortune of Balban's life was the death of Muhammad, the heir-apparent, who fell in opposing an irruption of the Moguls into his vice-royalty of the Panjâb. Balban died of grief in his eightieth year.

He has been the subject of excessive praise and blame from differing writers.

Balban's second son was Baghrâ (or Bakarra) Khân, Viceroy

of Bengâl, to whom, in fact, independent powers had been given. The late king had appointed Kei Khûsrû, son of Prince Muhammad, his heir; but the Omrahs, to avoid a civil war, placed Kei Kobad, son of Baghrâ Khân, on the throne, while Khûsrû went to his father's government of Mûltân.

17. Kei Kobad (Kaikubâd), 1286-1288.—KEI KOBAD was eighteen years of age at his accession, and was entirely under the influence of his Vazîr, Ni-zâm-ud-dîn, who encouraged him in every vice. Aiming at the throne, he procured the assassination of Kei Khûsrû. Baghrâ Khân, hearing of the state of affairs, marched with an army from Bengâl to rescue his son from the influence of the crafty Vazîr. Though a reconciliation took place between the father and the son, Baghrâ Khân found that he could not combat the influence of the infamous Nizâm-ud-dîn, and soon returned to Bengâl. Kei Kobad plunged anew into debaucheries, which ended in an attack of palsy. Alive now to the wicked designs of the minister, he caused him to be poisoned, but was himself assassinated by Jelâl-ud-dîn, head of the Khiljî tribe, in 1288.

Thus ended the '*Dynasty of the slaves of the Sultân of Ghôr.*'

PART V.—THE TATÂR KHLIJIS, A.D. 1288-1321.

THE FOURTH AFGHÂN DYNASTY.

18. Jelâl-ud-dîn Khiljî, 1288 (sometimes called Ghiljîe).—*Jelâl-ud-dîn Khiljî*, or Ferôz Shâh, was the founder of the next dynasty of Afghân kings, and the twelfth Muhammadan king of Delhi. He is supposed to have put to death the infant son of Kei Kobad. Clemency, degenerating into weakness, was the characteristic of his government. Invasions of the Moguls were made and repelled, as in the former reigns.

1294, First Muhammadân Invasion of the Dakhan.—The chief event of the reign, however, is the invasion of the Dakhan by his nephew Allâ-ud-dîn Khiljî, governor of Karrah. Setting out with 8000 chosen horse, the invader crossed the Nerbudda, and made for Dêogiri, where Râm Dêo Râo Jadow, a prince of

great power and influence, was reigning. He easily subdued the Hindû prince. Allâ-ud-dîn also took and sacked Ellichpûr.

On his return he assassinated his uncle. Jelâl-ud-dîn was seventy-seven years old at the time of his death, having reigned seven years.

19. Allâ-ud-dîn Khiljî, the Sanguinary, 1295-1317.—The extraordinary man whose crimes had now placed him on the throne of Delhi has gained for himself the title of ‘the sanguinary’; but his reign of twenty-one years may be considered to have been, on the whole, successful, if not glorious.

(1.) His first act, when seated on the throne, was to murder the two sons of Jelâl-ud-dîn.

(2.) He then strove to efface the remembrance of the crimes by which he had won the empire by the excellence of his administration. He learned to read and write, and became the patron of learned men; but his avarice and fierce temper marred the effect of his general policy of conciliation.

(3.) In 1297 he sent an army to bring Gujarât, which had regained its freedom, finally under the yoke. Pattan, or Anhal-wâra, was now utterly destroyed.

(4.) **The Infamous Malik Kâfûr, 1298.**—The most memorable result of this conquest of Gujarât was the capture of a handsome young eunuch, a slave, called Malik Kâfûr; who, coming into the king’s possession, speedily rose to the highest offices; became the scourge of the Dakhan, and at last the murderer of the blood-stained Allâ.

Koula Dêvî, the wife of the Râja of Gujarât, and said to be the handsomest woman in India, was also taken captive.

(5.) In 1298 occurred another and more serious Mogul invasion. Two hundred thousand horsemen marched upon Delhi, committing every species of atrocity on their way. Allâ went out to oppose them, and with the aid of his able general, Zafur Khân, inflicted on them a terrible chastisement. But Zafur Khân had distinguished himself too greatly; and the jealous Allâ contrived to leave him unsupported during the pursuit, so that he was cut off, dying with a bravery worthy of his reputation. There were several other Mogul irruptions in this

reign. The invaders were unsuccessful, and vast numbers of them perished in these attempts.

(6.) **Attempt to assassinate Allâ, 1299.**—In 1299 Allâ's nephew, Prince Soleimân, made an attempt to imitate his example, and to assassinate his uncle. Allâ was left for dead, but, recovering his senses, rode into camp wounded as he was, confronted the usurper, who, forsaken by the army, was seized and put to death. Two other nephews rebelled, and were first blinded and then beheaded.

(7.) **Râjpûtâna, 1300-1303.**—The conquest of Rîntambôr, in 1300, and of Chitôr in 1303, established his power in Râjpûtâna. The Râjpûts, as usual, when driven to despair, put their wives and children to death, and then met death among the enemy. This they call *JOHAR*. Padmanî, the queen, a woman of exquisite beauty, with the wives of all the warriors, threw herself on the funeral pile prepared in the centre of the fated city. Chitôr eventually came into the hands of the son of the former Râja, the ancestor of the present Râna of Oudipûr.

(8.) **Malik Kâfûr in the Dakhan.**—Malik Kâfûr made four great expeditions into the Dakhan in 1306, 1309, 1310, and 1312, from which he brought back immense treasures to Delhi.

In one of these expeditions the Princess Dêwal Dêvî, daughter of the Râja, was captured. She was afterwards married to Khizr Khân, eldest son of Allâ. Their history is the subject of a popular poem.

(9.) **Assassination of Moguls, 1311.**—The year 1311 was marked by another of Allâ's 'sanguinary' acts. There was a great multitude of Mogul converts in his pay. These he suddenly dismissed; and, on their raising a disturbance, he caused 15,000 of them to be massacred, and their families sold as slaves.

(10.) Kâfûr now acquired absolute power over Allâ's mind, which, as well as his body, was giving way under the influence of habitual intemperance. He became jealous of every one, imprisoned his queen and his two eldest sons, and caused his brother Alaf Khân, and his great general Alp Khân, to be murdered. (**Allâ's Death, 1317.**) Rebellions broke out, and in the midst of these Kâfûr hastened the king's death by poison.

(11.) Allâ was not without genius; but his want of mental

discipline and judgment led him into the wildest schemes. He sometimes contemplated proclaiming himself a second Muhammad; and, at other times, aimed at universal conquest, and assumed the title of the second Alexander.

20. Mubârik Khljî.—Kâfûr now placed the youngest son of Allâ, an infant, named Ômar, on the throne. He then blinded the two eldest sons of Allâ, and sent assassins to murder Mubârik, the third son. But Mubârik gained over the army, put Kâfûr to death, and ascended the throne. His first acts were to put out the eyes of his infant brother, and to murder the officers to whom he was indebted for his own preservation. He then made Khûsrû Khân, a converted Parwârî slave from Gujarât, his Vazîr.

His first measures were meritorious. He released 17,000 persons imprisoned by his father, and strove to undo the effects of his arbitrary acts.

He then marched to the Dakhan, seized Harpâl, the rebellious son-in-law of Râm Dêo, and flayed him alive.

The remainder of his reign was spent in unspeakable debaucheries.

Khûsrû, in whose hands all power was placed, made a successful expedition to Malabâr, returned with abundant spoil to Delhi, assassinated his master, and exterminated his whole family (p. 75).

PART VI.—THE HOUSE OF TUGHLAK, A.D. 1321-1412

THE FIFTH ARGHÂN DYNASTY.

21. Gheîâz-ud-dîn Tughlak, 1321-1325.—The infamous Khûsrû was himself put to death by GHEÎÂZ-UD-DÎN TUGHLAK, Governor of the Panjâb, who by universal consent ascended the throne. He was the son of a Tûrkî slave of Balban, by a woman of the Jât tribe.

Now came the expedition to Telingâna, under his son Jûna Khân (or *Jonah*).

The king himself at this time paid a visit to Bengâl, which was still under Baghrâ Khân, son of Balban, his old master, to examine into complaints of oppression.

His Death, 1325.—On his return the emperor met with his

death by the fall of a magnificent pavilion, erected for him by his son Jûna, whose opportune absence threw upon him a grave suspicion of being the contriver of his father's death.

22. Jûna Khan Tughlak, 1325.—Jûna, on his accession, assumed the title of Sultân Muhammad Tughlak, and is regarded as the nineteenth Muhammadan king of Delhi.

He was a prince of unrivalled munificence; eloquent, accomplished, learned in Arabic, Persian, Greek philosophy, mathematics, and physical science; a strict Muhammadan, moral, brave, and energetic. Yet his wild schemes, and his general conduct as a ruler, show him to us rather in the light of one insane, than as a man possessed of these various excellencies and accomplishments.

(1.) His first act was to buy off the Moguls, who had as usual invaded the Panjâb.

(2.) He then made an expedition into the Dakhan, which for the time he reduced to order.

(3.) His next plan was to invade Persia, but his vast army was disbanded after the consumption of all his treasure.

(4.) He then projected the conquest of China, whose spoils were to replenish his coffers. A hundred thousand men marched across the Himâlayas; but, attacked by the Chinese, and worn out with fatigue and famine, hardly a man returned.

(5.) He then strove to introduce copper tokens, as an approach to a paper currency, which he had heard of as existing in China. But as his government was insolvent, this of course only added to his own embarrassments and to the sufferings of his subjects.

(6.) When the people, driven to despair by his exactions, fled to the woods, he more than once ordered out his troops and hunted them down, thus exterminating the inhabitants of large districts.

(7.) At this time Bengâl rebelled, and remained independent until the accession of Shîr Shâh.

(8.) Now also arose that celebrated rebellion in Gujarât which led to the establishment of the Bâhmanî kingdom in the Dakhan. The Governor of Mâlwa had treacherously massacred forty Mogul Amîrs, when then the remainder rebelled, took refuge in

the Dakhan, and made common cause with other Mogul Amirs there. The king in person went against them, defeated them, and shut them up in Daulatâbâd; but was suddenly recalled to Gujarât by tidings of more serious disturbances there.

His departure was the signal for a general rise in the Dakhan. The insurgents had proclaimed Ishmael Khân their king, but he, feeling his inability to command in such critical times, resigned in favour of Zuffir Khân.

(9.) Jûna Khân (or Sultân Muhammad), who had pursued the Gujarât rebels to Tatta in Sind, died there in 1351, after a reign of about twenty-seven years. His death was caused by eating fish to excess.

(10.) **Transfer of capital to Dowlatâbâd, or Dêogiri.**—One of his many freaks was the attempt to transfer the seat of empire from Delhi to Daulatâbâd. He compelled the people of Delhi to migrate to the new capital, and many thousands perished in this insane attempt, which was afterwards abandoned.

(11.) Another whim of his was to procure a confirmation of his title to the kingdom from the nominal Khalif of Egypt, who now was looked upon as the head of Islâm. On obtaining this, he struck out from the records of the kingdom the names of all his predecessors.

(12.) **Ibn Batuta.**—In 1341, a traveller from Tanjiers, *Ibn Batuta*, visited Delhi. He was received with great respect, and appointed to the office of judge by the king. Seeing, however, some evidences of Muhammad's capricious and cruel temper, he resigned his office. The king, without taking offence, attached him to an embassy to China, and thus honourably dismissed him. His accounts of Indian affairs are highly interesting.

23. **Ferôz Tughlak, 1351-1388.**—Jûna Khân, or Muhammad III., was succeeded by his nephew *Ferôz-ud-dîn Tughlak*, who reigned from 1351 to 1388, when he died at the age of ninety, ten years before the invasion of India by Teimûr.

He received embassies from both Bengâl and the Dakhan, thus acknowledging the independence of those provinces.

His reign was marked by a course of humane and liberal legislation. He greatly promoted the erection of public works

of every kind ; the most important of those being the canal that goes by his name, running from the head-waters of the Jamna to Hissar. Ferôzpûr, near the Satlaj, was founded by him.

24. Gheîâz-ud-din II.—He was succeeded by his grandsons, *Gheîâz-ud-din* and *Abu-bekr* (**Abu-bekir, 1389**), who reigned for five months and one month respectively. Both were deposed, and the former murdered.

Nâsir-ud-dîn, 1390-1394.—Then *Nâsir-ud-dîn Tughlak*, eldest son of Ferôz, who had assisted in the government in his father's time, and had been expelled for mismanagement, returned and dethroned his nephew. He reigned from 1390 to 1394.

Death of Nâsir-ud-dîn.—His son Humâyûn succeeded him, but died at the end of forty-five days, and another brother, Mahmûd Tughlak, ascended the throne in 1394.

25. Muhammad Tughlak, 1394-1412.—Mahmûd was a child, and was the most insignificant of the whole series. His nominal reign lasted till 1412 A.D. ; but, before that time, *the kingdom of Delhi had in fact ceased to exist*. Four provinces had rebelled—Mâlwa, Gujarât, Kândêsh, and Jounpûr. Delhi itself was torn with civil strife.

The Dakhan was wasted by a terrible famine, called by the natives Dûrgâ Dêvi, which lasted twelve years from 1396.

Teimûr the Ta(r)târ, 1398.—In the midst of all came the Tatâr chief Teimûr Lenc (Tamerlane, *Teimûr* the lame); laid Hindûstân waste, and was declared Emperor of Delhi. His son, Pir Muhammad, took Ooch and Mûltân, 1397.

26. Mâlwa, 1401.—The temporary independence of Mâlwa dates from about A.D. 1401. Dilâwar Khân (Ghôrî) was its first king. He was succeeded by Hoshung (Hûshang) (Ghôrî (1405-1432). He built Mândû, whose ruins attest its former extent and grandeur, and removed the capital from Dhâr, where Râja Bhôja had fixed it, to that place. This kingdom was annexed by Bahâdar Shâh of Gujarât in 1526-1531.

27. Gujarât, 1391.—Gujarât became independent in the year 1391, under Muzaffir Shâh. He was continually at war with

Mâlwa. In 1398, on Teimûr's invasion, Mahmûd Tughlak fled to Gujarât, but was ill received. From thence he went to Mâlwa.

Ahmed Shâh of Gujarât, 1416.—Muzaffir's grandson was Ahmed Shâh (1416-1459), who built Ahmednagar and Ahmedâbâd. He was continually at war with the Râjpûts. Mahmûd Bêgara succeeded to the throne in 1459, and reigned till 1511.

• **Bahâdar Shâh** reigned from 1526-1537. He conquered Mâlwa.

28. Jounpûr, 1394-1476.—Jounpûr was rendered independent by Khâja (or Kwâjah) Jehân (whose title was Malik-us-Shark, and whose dynasty was thence called the *Sharki*), the Vazîr of Mahmûd Tughlak. Its territory extended from Kananj north-west to the boundary of Bengâl, and South Rahâr south-east. This kingdom was a formidable rival to Delhi, which city was twice besieged by its armies. Its independence lasted from 1394 to 1474. Ibrâhim Shâh Sharki, who succeeded in 1401, greatly aggrandised the kingdom, and in his time the city became one of the finest in India.

29. Teimûr, 1398.—In 1398 occurred the great invasion of Teimûr. He greatly resembled Ghengiz Khân, but, unlike him, was a man of great intellect and very considerable learning. He was a Turk, and had subdued all Central and Western Asia. His chief cities were Bokhâra and Samarkhand. His tomb is in the latter. He reached Delhi in December 1398, gave it up to indiscriminate pillage, and afterwards proceeded to Mirut, where a like tragedy was acted; and thence to Hardwâr and Jamna; and so left India, taking with him an immense booty and an innumerable crowd of slaves.

30. Mahmûd restored.—Delhi remained desolate for some time after his departure; but at length *Mahmûd* was nominally restored, and died there in 1412.

With him ended the Tughlak dynasty, which was the last of the dynasties of the so-called *Slave Kings*.

31. Daulat Khân Lodî, 1413.—DAULAT KHÂN LODÎ. This chief, for fifteen months after the death of Mahmûd, retained

possession of Delhi, without, however, assuming the insignia of royalty; but was expelled in 1414 by *Khizr Khân*, viceroy of the Panjâb.

PART VII.—THE SEIADS, A.D. 1414-1450.

THE SIXTH DYNASTY.

32. The Seiads, 1414-1450. [Or *Syud*, or *Sayyid*=descendant of *Muhammad*.]—THE FOUR SEIADS. From 1414 to 1450 Delhi was held by four rulers, who professed to regard themselves as Viceroys of the Mogul; but they scarcely possessed any territory beyond the walls of Delhi.

Their names were—

(1.) SEIAD KHIZR KHÂN—1414-1421; who (or rather, his excellent minister, *Tâj-ul-mulk*) was just and generous, and for whom, when he died, all Delhi wore black for three days.

(2.) SEIAD MUBÂRIK—1421-1435; who was benevolent, and of most amiable temper, but was murdered by some Hindû assassins.

(3.) SEIAD MUHAMMAD—1435-1444; of whom nothing can be said, but that he was a weak and dissolute prince, in whose reign, if reign it can be called, there were continual tumults; and

(4.) SEIAD ALLÂ-UD-DÎN—1444-1450, or *Âlam Shâh*, who, driven out by *Behlûl Lodî*, abdicated, and lived peacefully in *Budâon*.

PART VIII.—THE LODIS, A.D. 1450-1526.

THE SEVENTH DYNASTY.

33. Behlûl Lodî, 1450-1488 (or Belol).—(1.) *BEHLUL*, a man of immense vigour, had gained possession of Sirhind and the Panjâb, and now drove *Seiad Allâ-ud-dîn* from Delhi. He afterwards conquered *Jaunpûr*, after twenty-six years of war. He reigned from 1450 to 1488.

(2.) *Sikander Lodî*, 1488-1513.—His son, *Sikander Lodî*, succeeded him, and reigned to 1518. He re-annexed *Bahâr*,

but the kingdom was now little more than a number of nearly independent principalities. He fought against his brother Bârbak, to whom Jaunpûr had been assigned, and who strove to obtain the empire.

Sikander was in many respects an excellent and accomplished prince, but a fierce persecutor of the Hindûs.

During this reign the Portuguese landed in Calicut. Sikander made Âgra his capital.

(3.) **Ibrâhîm Lodî, 1518-1526.**—His son, *Ibrâhîm*, was unlike his father. He disgusted the chiefs by his haughtiness and cruelty.

Bâber.—One of them, Daulat Khân Lodî, Governor of the Panjâb, called in Sultân Bâber, the Tatâr ruler of Kâbul, who took Lâhôr, burnt the city, and then advanced on Delhi with an army of 12,000. Ibrâhîm met him at Pânîpat (**Second Battle of Pânîpat**) with a much larger army, but was killed in the battle, which ended in the complete triumph of Bâber.

34. Thus ended the dynasties of the Afghâns (Tûrks or Tafârs), who, under different names, had ruled a large portion of Hindûstân, making Delhi or Âgra the seat of government for 320 years (1206-1526).

About the same time the great Bâhminî kingdom of Kulbûrga was broken up into five parts (p. 77).

CHAPTER III

THE MOGUL EMPERORS

1. The Six Great Mogul Emperors, 1526-1707.

I. BÂBER	1526-1530	A series of wonderful men in every part of the world.
II. HUMÂYUN	1530-1556	In exile sixteen years.
III. AKBAR	1556-1605	Queen Elizabeth : 1558-1603.
IV. JEHANGIR	1605-1627	Sir T. Roe. Nûr Jehân.
V. SHAH JEHAN	1627-1658	The architect. Dethroned.
VI. AURUNGZIB (OR ALAMGIR I.)	1658-1707	The last of the great Moguls.

2. The Six Emperors of the Falling Empire, 1707-1748.

VII. Shâh Alam I. (or Bahâdar Shâh)	707-1712	Concession to the Mah-rattas.
VIII. Jehândâr Shâh	1712-1713	The Seiads. Murdered.
IX. Farukshir	1713-1719	The Peshwâs. Assassinated.
X. Rafi-ud-darajât	1719-Feb.	} Mere puppets of the Seiads, removed by poison or disease within three months.
XI. Rafi-ud-daula	1719-May	
XII. Muhammad Shâh	1719-1748	The Empire broke up. Nâdir Shâh.

3. The Five entirely dependent Emperors, or Kings, 1748-1857.

XIII. Ahmad Shâh	1748-1754	Blinded and deposed.
XIV. Alamgîr II.	1754-1759	Plassey. Murdered.
XV. Shâh Alam II.	1759-1806	Rescued by Lord Lake.
XVI. Akbar II.	1806-1837	A mere pensioner.
XVII. Muhammad Bahâdar	1837-1857	The helper of the mutineers.

4. I. Bâber.—SULTÂN BÂBER (= the LION) demands our especial attention, as being the founder of the Mogul Indian Empire, and the first of a dynasty of renowned emperors, under whom India rose to the highest apparent prosperity.

He was descended, on the father's side, from Teimûr (Tamerlane) the Tatâr; but his mother was a Mogul, connected with the tribe of Genghîz Khân. This race was detested by him; yet, strange to say, from it his dynasty got the name, now generally corrupted into *Mogul*. It is variously spelt Moghul, Mughal, and Mogul.

5. His life, till 1524, was a succession of struggles, in the course of which he sometimes extended his sway as far as to Kandahâr, and at other times was a fugitive; thrice occupying his paternal city of Samarkhand, and being thrice expelled from it.

Results of the Battle of Pânipat.—The (SECOND) battle of Pânipat, referred to already, gave him nothing but the small tract around Delhi and Âgra. The other parts of the so-called Empire were still held by revolted chieftains. From the time of the magnificent madman Muhammad Tughlak (1351), there had been no real empire of Delhi.

Thus Bahâr was in the possession of Muhammad Shâh Lohânî; a part of Mâlwa and the surrounding districts were held by Sanga; Chandêri and the adjacent country by Medni Râi; and Bengâl by an Afghân chief. The Dakhan, which had been independent since 1347, was now divided into five Musalmân kingdoms, besides the Hindû kingdom of Bijangar, called by Europeans *Narsinga*. The Portuguese had conquered Goa in A.D. 1510, and (though the great Albuquerque had died in A.D. 1515) they were still very powerful on the western coast.

6. Bâber's Intentions.—It was evidently the general impression, even among Bâber's own troops, that after plundering Âgra and Delhi, he would, like his ancestor Teimûr, return to the regions west of the Indus. This intention, however, he emphatically disclaimed; he had come to found a Tatâr Empire in India.

7. Prince Humâyûn, Baber's eldest son, was accordingly employed to reduce to obedience the various Musalmân chieftains. In four months this was effected, from Gwâlîôr to Jounpûr.

Sanga, the Râjpût, of Chitôr.—A more stubborn enemy was the Hindû Sanga, a Râjpût prince, with whom the Râjas of

Mârwâr and Jeypûr were joined, as also Medni Râi of Chandêrî. Sanga was the grandson of Râna Khumbo (1440), who was the grandson of Bâpu. This was the last great struggle of the Râjpûts for empire.

Sîkri.—The decisive battle of Sîkri (Fatihpûr Sikri, near Âgra, February 1527), and the storming of Chandêrî (January 1528), firmly established the Mogul throne. The defenders of this last fortress perished to a man in the desperate struggle; in which fell Medni Râi, who was next to Sanga as a Râjpût leader. Prince Humâyûn afterwards married a daughter of the Râja of Jeypôr.

8. Bahâr and Bengâl were next attacked; and by May 1529 these provinces had also submitted to Bâber's arms.

9. **Bâber's Death.**—Bâber died in 1530, and was buried in Kâbul, after giving up his life at the bedside of his dying son, Humâyûn, who recovered.

His character was a mixture of Tatâr ferocity with simplicity. He was addicted to intemperance. His history is gathered from his own diary.

Chaitanya, the great Bengal Teacher, 1484-1527.—At this period arose *Chaitanya*, who remodelled the Vaishṇava worship. Krishna was the form of Vishnu, whose worship he inculcated. He brought into use the word BHAKTI (=faith and devotion); teaching that fervent love and adoration were of more importance than ceremonial observances. This has much changed the character of Hindû worship everywhere.

10. II. **Humâyûn.**—The *Second* Mogul Emperor was HUMÂÛN, who reigned nominally from A.D. 1530 to 1556; but spent nearly sixteen years of this period (1540-1556) in exile.

His Treatment of his Brothers.—He had three brothers—Kâmrân, Hindâl, and Mîrza Askarî, to the first of whom he rashly gave up Kâbul, Kandahâr, the Panjâb, and the countries on the Indus; to the second, Sambal (east of Delhi); and to the youngest, Mêwât (Machêri or Alwâr). His generosity, or weakness, thus stripped him of his fairest dominions.

11. Bahâdar Shâh.—BAHÂDAR SHÂH of Gujarât (1526-1537) was his first antagonist.

Gujarât had long been independent, and Bahâdar Shâh, at that time king of the country, was the greatest that ever governed it. He compelled Kândêsh, Berâr, and Ahmadnagar to acknowledge him as their feudal superior. He had conquered and annexed Mâlwa. Humâyûn, irritated at his harbouring some fugitive rebels, attacked him, and wrested from him a great part of his dominions; but he regained all in the following year.

The scaling of the walls of the fort of Champanîr (where the treasures of the kingdom were heaped up) by 300 men, of whom Humâyûn himself was one, was the great exploit of this war. Bahâdar had splendid artillery, directed by Portuguese gunners, under Rûmi Khân, a very able officer.

This ancient but now deserted city was a few miles N.E. of Barôda. The fort of Pâwagarh is higher up the hill. It is surrounded by walls fifteen feet high, and one mile and a half in circumference.

12. Shîr Khân Sûr.—Humâyûn's next and more redoubtable antagonist was SHÎR KHÂN SÛR, an Afghân (of the tribe of Sûr, descendant of one of the followers of the Lodis), who now held Bahâr and Bengâl, which he had conquered.

Humâyûn made several expeditions against him, and at length laid siege to Chunâr, and took it. Shîr Khân was himself engaged in completing the conquest of Bengâl at the time. Humâyûn advanced as far as Gour, then the capital of Bengâl. Meanwhile the rains came on, during which nothing could be done in Bengâl; and Shîr Khân, issuing from his retreat in the hill-fortress of Rôhtas, retook the cities and forts on the Ganges, surprising Humâyûn between Patna and Benâres.

The emperor reached Âgra almost alone. His brothers had been plotting against him; but they now aided him to prepare for the approach of the victorious Shîr Khân.

13. He sustained another decisive defeat near Kanouj, and was compelled to flee to Lâhôr; but Kâmrân himself had retired to Kâbul, and Humâyûn, deprived of that shelter, fled to Sind. There he wandered for a year and a half, and at length directed his course to Mârwâr. Repulsed thence, he made his way across the desert to Amerkôt, where he arrived with seven companions, after enduring unspeakable hardships.

14. **Birth of Akbar, 1542.**—Here his son AKBAR was born. Deserted by his brothers, Humâyûn pursued his flight, and reached Persia.

In April 1543, his faithful general, Beirâm Khân, who had escaped from the battle of Kanouj, joined him. The infant Akbar was sent to Kandahar.

15. **His Treatment in Persia, 1544.**—The Persian Shah, Tamâsp, did not treat Humâyûn generously, but used every unworthy expedient to induce him to become a Shîa,¹ like the Persians, and to introduce that system thenceforward into India.

At length, however, the Persian king gave him 14,000 horsemen, to assist in restoring him to his kingdom. Thus aided, he took Kandahâr and Kâbul from his unnatural brother Kâmrân. It is said that during the siege of the latter place, Kâmrân exposed the young Akbar on the walls, threatening to put him to death if Humâyûn should persist in the siege. Humâyûn

¹ **Shîas and Sunnis.**—The *Shîa* and *Sunnî* are the two great sects into which the Muhammadans are divided.

A. The *Shîas* (1) reject all traditions, and cling to the simple Kurân;

(2) disavow the three Khalîfs who immediately succeeded Muhammad;

(3) seldom visit Mecca; but go to Kerbelâ instead, where Husain was slain;

(4) They alone observe the Muharram.

(5) They are called heretics by the Sunnis; are the *Protestants* of Muhammadanism.

(6) The Persians, and nearly all Indian Muhammadans, are of this sect.

B. The *Sunnîs* (1) hold the *Sunnat*, or traditions, as a supplement to the Kurân;

(2) acknowledge as Khalîfs after Muhammad, *Abû-Bekr*, *Omar*, and *Osman*; then, and four only, *All*.

(3) *Afghâns*, *Turks*, *Arabs*, and *Rohillas* are of this sect.

seems to have behaved inhumanly in slaughtering the prisoners.

16. Humâyûn and his Brothers.—In 1548, the four brothers, Humâyûn, Hindal, Kâmrân, and Mirza Askari were reconciled ; but Kâmrân, ever treacherous, again rebelled, and was at length defeated and blinded (1553). These dissensions weakened the cause of the house of Teimûr ; but in 1555 Humâyûn was in a condition to attempt to regain his Indian dominions.

The history of the (temporarily) restored *Afghân dynasty* must now be traced.

THE SÛR.

THE RESTORED AFGHÂNS, OR SÛR DYNASTY, FIVE IN NUMBER.
(A.D. 1510-1556.)

Humâyûn in Exile : his Return and Death.

17. Shîr Shâh Sûr, 1540-1545.—SHÎR SHÂH is often branded as a usurper. Yet, descended from the ancient Afghân conquerors, a native of India, and the expeller of the Moguls, who had only reigned fourteen years in India, his claim to the throne was at least as good as Humâyûn's.

Nor did his method of ruling give his new subjects cause to regret the revolution. He was, in his government of India, wise, benevolent, and active ; though ambitious, and, in one case certainly, treacherous and cruel. This was in the atrocious massacre of the garrison of Raisin (in Mâlhwâ, a fortress said to have been built by Râma), which was surrendered on the express stipulation that the lives of its defenders should be spared. Shîr Shâh slew them, because *faith is not to be kept with infidels*.

He is said to have made a road from Bengâl to the bank of the Indus, and from Âgrâ to Mândû, with a caravanseraï at every stage, and wells at intervals of a mile and a half all along. He was killed at the siege of Kalinjîr (in Bundêlkhand), A.D. 1545.

18. Selîm Shâh Sûr, 1545-1553.—The *second* of this restored dynasty was SELÎM SHÂH (A.D. 1545-1553), or *Islâm Shâh*. He seems to have possessed great ability, and to have laboured for the improvement of the country.

19. Muhammad Adalî Sûr (Adalî=the foolish).—Selim's son, Ferôz, succeeded; but, after three days, was murdered by his uncle, MUHAMMAD ADIL SHÂH (or Adalî), who is commonly the *third* of the restored dynasty.

He was a despicable tyrant. His Vazîr was Hêmu, a Hindû of low origin, but of great ability. This man had been a petty shopkeeper; but he fought with the courage of a Paladin, and assumed the title of Vikramâditya.

20. Humâyûn's Return, 1555.—Rebellions soon ensued, and the empire was divided into five portions, under rivals—members of the Afghân royal family (1555). IBRAHIM SÛR, one of these, got possession of Delhi, and is reckoned the *fourth* of the dynasty. This was the moment when Humâyûn made up his mind to invade and recover India. He soon gained possession of Lâhôr, and, driving SIKANDER SÛR, another of the rivals (called the fifth of the dynasty), to the Himâlayas, regained Âgra and Delhi.

Akbar.—This battle, the decisive one, in which Akbar, then little more than twelve years old, fought (like the Black Prince) by the side of Humâyûn and Beîrâm Khân, took place at or near NOWSHÊRA (June 18, 1555), not far from the Satlaj.

Humâyûn's Death, 1556.—Humâyûn had, however, regained at his death but a very small portion of his dominions; for SIKANDER soon reappeared in the Panjâb, and Hêmu, with the army of Adalî, was still in Bengâl. While Prince Akbar, then thirteen years of age, was in the Panjâb, with Beîrâm Khân, Humâyûn fell from the stairs leading to the top of his palace in Delhi, and was killed.

Humâyûn's Character.—He was superstitious; kindly-hearted on the whole; indulgent; very dilatory in all his movements; and too incessantly occupied in warfare to be able to do anything for his adopted country.

21. III. Akbar.—The *Third* Mogul Emperor was AKBAR (1556-1605). He has been pronounced to be *the greatest sovereign that ever swayed a sceptre*.

Akbar's real name was Jalâl-ud-dîn (=the glory of the faith) Muhammad. His surname is *Akbar*=the Great.

His Mother.—His mother's name was Hamida, a native of Khorasân, of obscure family.

His Birth, 1542.—He was born at Amerkôt, in Sind (Oct. 14, 1542), while Humâyûn was fleeing from the ambition of Shîr Shâh, and from the treachery of his brothers and his subjects.

He fell into the hands of his uncle Kâmrân, December 1543, and remained at Kandahâr and Kâbul till 1555.

When Humâyûn died, Akbar was thirteen years and four months old. It was a very much disputed inheritance to which he succeeded.

His Rivals.—Sikander, with the title of King of Delhi and of the Panjâb, was in arms near Sirhind, and Hêmu was on the borders of Bengâl.

Beirâm Khân.—The restorer of the race of Teimûr, and the real ruler for some years, was *Beirâm Khân*, the *atâliq* or guardian of Akbar.

22. Hêmu's Death.—Hêmu, who had taken both Âgra and Delhi, and had assumed the title of Râja Vikramâditya, after a heroic resistance, was overthrown and captured at the third battle of Pânipat. Beirâm wished Akbar to earn the title of Ghâzî, or champion, by slaying the Hindû. Akbar refused to strike a defenceless captive; and it was Beirâm that slew the infidel. Sikander also soon after submitted. Ibrâhîm Khân Sûr, who took refuge among the Afghâns, was slain in 1567.

23. Beirâm's Regency, 1556-1560.—Beirâm's inflexibility, military talents, and energy, were essential to Akbar at this period; but the regent occasionally exceeded his powers, and unnecessarily alienated the Omrahs, by whom Akbar was persuaded to assume the supreme power in his eighteenth year (A.D. 1560).

Beirâm, after much vacillation, broke out into rebellion; but was soon overcome, and threw himself on the mercy of Akbar, by whom he was treated with the utmost generosity and affection. The old man now set out to visit Mecca, the Muhammadan way of retiring from public life, but was assassinated in Gujarât.

Akbar was at length emperor in reality.

24. Akbar's Early Training.—His training had been such as to fit him for his most difficult task. Brought up among hardships ; fighting at the age of thirteen like a hero by the side of Beirâm Khân to recover his father's throne ; compelled by the character of Beirâm to exercise in boyhood and youth the utmost prudence and self-restraint ; and, aware that a single false step now might lose all, he ascended the throne with sober and prudent resolves to govern well and wisely.

The adherents of the house of Teimûr in India were, however, at this period, few.

The Panjâb and the district around Delhi were all that the Moguls could as yet call their own.

25. Akbar had first to conquer his own feudatory nobles. Khân Zemân (one of Akbar's own generals), Râz Bahâdur in Mâlwa, Adam Khân, Abdullah Khân, and Asaf Khân, with three other military chieftains, made war against him ; and in such struggles he was engaged until his 25th year (A.D. 1567).

26. His Struggles with the Râjpûts.—He spent the next five years (A.D. 1567-1572) in reducing the Râjpûts to submission.

The chief of these was—

(a.) The Râja of Jeypûr (Ambêr), Bahâra (Bihâri) Mal.

Akbar married this Râja's daughter (1561), and Selâm, Akbar's eldest son, was married to another princess of the same family, daughter of Râj Bhagavân Dâs (1585).

(b.) 1567.—The next Râjpû state was that of the Râna of Chitôr, or Oudipûr, Ûdi Sing, son of Râna Sanga.

(c.) The third Râjpû chieftain was the Râna of Jodhpûr, or Mârwar, Maldêo.

Akbar married a daughter of the Râja of Mârwar, called Jodh Bâi. She was the mother of Jehângîr.

27. Gujarât, 1573.—Akbar now annexed *Gujarât* to his ever-growing empire. (It had been independent from 1391.)

Bahâdar Shâh died in 1537. The dissensions that followed his death were so great that Akbar was requested to put an end

to the anarchy by taking the kingdom, which, after some severe fighting, he did (A.D. 1573).

28. The Eastern Provinces reduced, 1575-1592.—Akbar's next conquest was that of *Bahâr, Bengâl, and Orissa*.

Dâûd Khân, an Afghân, had taken possession of these provinces. His defeat and death ended the contest (1576). There were, however, serious rebellions afterwards; and both Râja Todar Mal and Râja Mân Sing, were employed as viceroys in re-establishing order. Akbar's power was severely tried by these rebellions. Râja Mân Sing, son of Bhagavân Dâs, was the conqueror of Orissa. Orissa was wholly and finally subdued in 1592, and now *no remains of the Afghân power were to be found in Hindûstân*.

29. Cashmîr, 1586.—The next conquest was that of *Cashmîr*. The emperor went there in person, and defeated the chief, who became one of the Omrahs of the Delhi Court.

Hill Tribes on the Border.—This was followed by a war with various Afghân tribes around the plain of Peshâwar, such as the Yusufzyes (*Eusofzyes*) and Roshenîyas.

30. Sind.—Sind was added in 1592 to the list of Akbar's annexations. The chief whom he subdued became a commander of 5000 in the Mogul army, and was appointed Governor of Tatta.

The First Sepoys in India.—The Portuguese aided the Sind chief, and it is said that natives, dressed and drilled as Europeans, fought in this war. These were the *first sepoys in India*.

31. Kandahâr, 1594.—Kandahâr, too, came again under Akbar's sway, owing to dissensions among the Persians.

Thus Akbar's hereditary dominions beyond the Indus, and all Hindûstân to the Nerbudda (except Oudipûr), were now completely under his sway. *Thirty-eight years of his reign had been consumed, and he was now fifty years of age*.

32. The Dakhan.—He next attempted (and it was an unjust and aggressive war) the re-conquest of the Dakhan.

The chief events in the history of the Dakhan, belonging to Akbar's reign, are—

- (a.) *The battle of Talikôt*, 1565.
- (b.) Confederacy of the kings of Bījapûr and Ahmadnagar against the Portuguese, A.D. 1570.
- (c.) The two sieges of Ahmadnagar, A.D. 1595, 1599.
- (d.) The annexation of Kândêsh, A.D. 1599, 1600.

33. The Siege of Ahmadnagar, 1595.—The dissensions in Ahmadnagar between the Hindû and Abyssinian nobles so increased, that Murâd (second son of Akbar) and Mirza Khân (son of Beirâm Khân), were sent to take the divided city. It was defended by the famed Chând Bibî and peace was concluded.

34. Akbar in the Dakhan, 1599.—Akbar now left the Panjâb (in the vicinity of which he had been from 1554); and in 1599 arrived in Burhânpûr. Doulatâbâd had been taken, and Prince Dâniyâl (Akbar's third son), with Mirza Khân, was sent on again to besiege Ahmadnagar.

Civil dissensions had again broken out, and the heroic Chând Bibî was murdered by the opponents of her little grand-nephew.

Ahmadnagar taken, 1599.—The Moguls then soon took the city, made a great slaughter of the traitors, and took the young king prisoner. He ended his days in the usual prison, Gwâlîôr.

35. Kândêsh, 1601.—Akbar next annexed Kândêsh. Asirghar was taken, and Prince Daniyâl made viceroy. Here ended Akbar's exploits in the Dakhan, which he left in A.D. 1601; Âb-ul-Fazl, the great statesman, being left in conimand.

The Dakhan at Akbar's Death.—At the death of Akbar his possessions in the Dakhan were Kândêsh, a great part of Berâr, the fort of Ahmadnagar, and the surrounding districts. Not a warrior from choice, his reign was a series of military exploits, almost always crowned with entire success.

36. His Sons.—Akbar was unfortunate in his sons. The two eldest, Hasan and Hussain, were twins, and died in infancy.

Selim (= *safely*), who afterwards succeeded him, rebelled

in 1601; but Akbar's prudence put down the rebellion, and the Prince was, notwithstanding, made Viceroy of Bengál and Orissa, and commander of 10,000. He lived, chiefly at *Alláhábád*, in drunkenness and debauchery. He caused Âb-ul-Fazl to be set upon and murdered on his way back from the Dakhan.

Murâd (= *desired*) died at the age of 29 (1599).

Daniyâl (= *judge of God*) died in 1604, of intemperance.

37. Akbar's Failing Health.—Akbar's health at length began to fail. Sorrow for the death of Daniyâl is said to have hastened his end. When it became clear that he could not recover, the usual intrigues regarding the succession to the throne commenced.

His Successor.—The choice lay between Selîm, the only surviving son of the emperor, and Selim's son, Khâsrû, who had been appointed nominal governor of Orissa in 1593, when he was a mere child.

Akbar himself ended the strife by nominating Selîm as his successor.

He died October 1605, and was buried near Agra.

Akbar's Character and Personal Peculiarities.

38. (a.) In person he was strongly built and handsome; very affable and captivating in manners; sober and abstemious; not taking animal food for a fourth of the year; spending little time in sleep; and fond of hunting and athletic sports. He rode from Âjmîr to Âgra (220 miles) in two days, and often walked thirty or forty miles in a day. Among other things, he was a great pigeon fancier.

(b.) He was very studious, most methodical in the despatch of business, understood Sanskrit, encouraged every kind of literature, and superintended many important literary undertakings.

(c.) He was very affectionate, both to his family and friends, humane and compassionate.

Akbar's Religion.

39. (a.) Earlier in life he was a consistent Muhammadan, but in 1579 he openly professed latitudinarian sentiments, quite incompatible with orthodoxy.

(b.) He studied Hindû works of science and religion, and made himself acquainted, of course very imperfectly, with the tenets of the Christian religion, though under most unfavourable circumstances. Regular discussions were held, in which Brâhman, Muhammadan doctors, Sikh Gurus, and even Christian priests took part. His leanings seem to have been to the last of these systems.

Akbar's Policy.

40. (a.) His was a conciliating and tolerant policy, dictated by good sense, benevolent feelings, comprehensive intellect, and wide experience. But for this the Moguls would have soon passed away, as the various Afghân dynasties had before them.

(b.) He desired to treat all his subjects alike, to abolish the distinction of Hindû and Muhammadan; and thus to fuse the discordant elements of his empire into one homogeneous whole.

(c.) In revenue matters he introduced great reforms, not involving new principles so much as an accurate and painstaking adjustment of the burdens of taxation, making them press equally on all.

He laboured to reduce the expenses of the collection of the revenue, and to prevent the extortions of government officers. His greatest revenue officer was Râja Todar Mal. The amount of revenue collected was about £30,000,000 sterling.

(d.) **Divisions of the Empire.**—The empire, which contained at least 150,000,000 of inhabitants, was divided into eighteen Sûbâhs, each under a viceroy. The laws, in regard to punishments issued to these Sûbahdârs, were humane, forbidding mutilation in any case.

Akbar's friends, companions, and officers.

(a.) **Âb-ul-Fazl** (=the father of excellence). This eminent man, and the next in our list, Feizî, were sons of a learned man, who taught divinity in Âgra. He and his brother were Akbar's most intimate friends and counsellors.

Âb-ul-Fazl rose to the highest military commands, and was prime minister. He died in the forty-seventh year of the reign^a (1603).

Ayîn Akbarî.—He was the author of (I.) the celebrated Ayîn

Akbarî (or *Institutes of Akbar*), which contain a minute account of every department of government, and everything connected with the emperor's establishments, public and private; and (II.) of the Akbar Nâme, an elaborate panegyric history of the emperor's reign to about 1600.

He was killed by assassins employed by Selim, at Oorcha, in Mâlwa.

• (b.) **Feizi** (= *most excellent*), the elder brother of Âb-ul-Fazl (like his brother a most intimate friend of the emperor), was employed on an embassy to the Dakhan. He was the first Muhammadan that studied Hindû literature, from which he translated many works. He was, moreover, a poet, and more studious, but less a man of the world, than his brother.

The brothers translated the Mahâ Bhârata into Persian verse. This great work consisted of 100,000 couplets.

(c.) **Râja Todar Mal**.—Born at Lâhôr, from early youth a soldier, he was at once a great military leader, and also the great finance minister who carried out the extensive revenue reforms which have been referred to.

He is described as sincere and honest, but vindictive, and a very bigoted Hindû. From 1580 to 1582 he was Viceroy of Bengâl, and ably put down a rebellion there. He was also distinguished in the Afghân wars. Râja Bhagavân Dâs and Râja Todar Mal both died in 1589.

IV. Jehângîr.—JÊI ÂNGÎR was the FOURTH MOGUL EMPEROR. (A.D. 1605-1627.) .

41. Jehângîr's first steps.—Jehângîr was, on the whole, judicious in his first public acts.

He adopted and even developed his father's measures of reform.

He took great pains to give all men opportunities of approaching him.

He was more rigid than his father in his attention to the observances of the Muhammadan faith.

Himself a drunkard during his whole life, he punished all who were detected in the use of wine.

42. His Sons.—Jehângîr was as unfortunate in regard to his sons as Akbar had been.

His eldest son, Khûsrû, had long been at enmity with him. The mother of this prince was a Râjpût princess, whose death had been caused by Jehângîr's (Selîm's) ill-treatment. Akbar had once designed to disinherit Selîm for his violence and debauchery. On his father's accession, therefore, Khûsrû, thinking himself not safe, fled to the Panjâb, where a large army gathered around him.

Jehângîr's army was, however, victorious, and Khûsrû was seized on the banks of the Jhîlam, as he was trying to make his way to Kâbul.

Jehângîr caused 700 of Khûsrû's adherents to be impaled in a line leading from the gate of Lâhôr. The miserable prince was then conducted along the line to 'receive the homage of his servants.'

He was deeply affected by this horrid spectacle, and was kept a prisoner, though not in very close custody, till his death in 1621.

From 1623 to the death of the emperor, we shall find his third son, *Khurram*, in rebellion. He was, at first, Jehângîr's favourite, and in 1616 was nominated successor to the throne, and received the title of Shâh Jehân, or Lord of the World.

43. Malik Ambar.—The chief interest of the affairs of the Dakhan is connected with Malik Ambar, an Abyssinian noble, who made Khirki his capital, afterwards called Aurungabad. He died in 1626. Prince Parvîz, the emperor's second son, was Viceroy of the Dakhan till 1626, residing at Burhanpur.

44. Nûr Jehân.—In 1611 the great event of the emperor's life, his marriage with the celebrated *Mihrunnisa Khânûm*, afterwards called Nûr Jehân (= *light of the world*, or *light of the palace*: Nûr Mahâl), which imparts an air of romance to his whole history, took place. She was of a noble Persian family, which being reduced to poverty, her father emigrated to India. On the way, at Kandahâr, Nûr Jehân was born.

Jehângîr (then Prince Selîm), had seen and loved her when, as a girl, she accompanied her mother, who had free access to Akbar's harem. To remove her from the prince's sight, she

was, by Akbar's advice, married to a young Persian, who was made Governor of Burdwân. When Jehângîr became emperor, he attempted to induce Nûr Jehân's husband to divorce her, but he refused, and in a quarrel that ensued was accidentally killed. Nûr Jehân was then sent to Delhi, but, looking upon the emperor as the murderer of her husband, she rejected his overtures with disdain. After a length of time, however, a reconciliation took place, and Nûr Jehân became Empress of India. Her name was put on the coinage with the emperor's, and in all matters her influence was unbounded. Her father, and her brother, Asaf Khân, speedily raised to the highest offices, were wise ministers; and, though Jehângîr still indulged in nightly drunken debauches, the affairs of the empire were thenceforth managed with prudence and humanity.

45. War with Oudipûr.—The war with the Râna of Mêwâr, or Oudipûr, was brought to a successful issue by Shâh Jehân, who treated the vanquished Râna with distinguished kindness. His dominions were restored to him on submission, and his son became one of the military leaders of the empire.

46. Sir Thomas Roe sent by James I., 1615.—Sir Thomas Roe (an Oriental scholar) came as an ambassador from James I. to Jehângîr (1615 to 1618). He passed from Sûrat through Burhânpûr and Chitôr to Ajmîr, where he met the emperor, who was on his way to Gujarât. He found the cities of the Dakhan much neglected, and the country generally less prosperous than it had been in Akbar's time. The splendour of the court astonished him. He describes Jehângîr's nightly drunken orgies, and mentions having to bribe Asaf Khân with a pearl of value.

The French traveller Bernier was then in Jehângîr's court, and Ferishta was there at the same time as envoy from Bijapûr.

Jehângîr was well inclined to Christianity, which two of his nephews had embraced.

47. Shâh Jehân's rebellion.—Intrigues to ensure the succession to Prince Sheriâr, the emperor's youngest son (married to Nûr Jehân's daughter by her first husband), disturbed the peace of the empire, and led to Shâh Jehân's rebellion.

Prince Parvîz and the renowned general Muhâbat Khân were sent against the rebel, and drove him from the Dakhan, whence he made his way to Bengâl, where he for a time established himself, but soon after submitted to his father.

Muhâbat Khân's quarrel with Nûr Jehân.—Fresh troubles, however, arose from Nûr Jehân's jealousy of Muhâbat (= *awjûl*) Khân, the most eminent man in the empire. His family had come from Afghânistân, and he had fought under Akbar, and been raised to the highest position by Jehângîr. He was a friend and partisan of Prince Parvîz, and thus a direct opponent of the empress, since Nûr Jehân designed Prince Sheriâr to succeed.

Jehângîr a prisoner.—Muhâbat was sent for to court; he, however, resisted, and even took the emperor prisoner on the banks of the Jhîlam. Nûr Jehân strove in vain to liberate her husband, and at length resolved to share his captivity. She narrowly escaped being put to death by the victor. Muhâbat was now supreme, and retained his power for nearly a year.

Nûr Jehân at length succeeded in effecting the escape of the emperor, and Muhâbat was compelled to fly to the south, where he joined Shâh Jehân.

48. His Death.—The emperor died of asthma, on his way from Kashmir to Lâhôr, in his sixtieth year.

Birth of Sivajî, 1627.—*Sivajî was born in May of the same year.*

Jehângîr, notwithstanding his intemperance and occasional violence, was remarkable for his sincere love of justice, and his endeavours, by himself hearing all cases referred to him, to remedy the evils which existed in the state.

His maxim is said to have been:—‘That a monarch should care even for the beasts of the field, and that the very birds of heaven ought to receive their due at the foot of the throne.’

Tobacco.—Like his contemporary, James I., he was an opponent of the use of *tobacco*, then being introduced into both East and West: royal edicts and treatises have failed to arrest its wonderful spread through the world.

V. Shâh Jehân.—The fifth Mogul Emperor was SHÂH JEHÂN. A.D. 1627-1658.

On the death of his father he hastened from the Dakhan to Âgra. Sheriâr, and two of his cousins who opposed him, were defeated and put to death.

49. Dakhan Affairs.—Shâh Jehân's generals still carried on the war in the Dakhan, to punish Murteza Nizâm Shâh, who was at length put to death by Fath Khân.

• The Dakhan was now a prey to the threefold evils of war, pestilence, and famine.

In 1634, Muhâbat Khân was recalled to court, and the Moguls made no progress in the Dakhan, until Shâhji, father of Sivaji, set up a new pretender to the throne of Ahmadnagar, and took possession of the territory around. Sultân Shuja was viceroy of the Dakhan, and was recalled with the general.

Shâh Jehân now took the field himself; brought both Bijapûr and Golconda to terms; and subdued Shâhji, who entered the service of Bijapûr. Thus the Ahmadnagar kingdom was extinguished.

50. Destruction of Portuguese Power in Bengal.—The Portuguese had established a settlement near the ancient fort of Satgong. This they called *Golin*, or the granary, corrupted afterwards into Hûgli. At Chittagong, too, they had a flourishing factory. At the emperor's command, they were driven out after much slaughter.

51. Ali Merdan Khân, 1637.—Ali Merdan Khân, governor of Kandahâr, at this time gave up that province to Shâh Jehân, from disgust at the tyranny of his master, the King of Persia. He became a trusted general of the emperor, and especially rendered himself useful as an architect. A canal at Delhi attests his skill, and bears his name.

52. Kandahâr.—Kandahâr was soon retaken by the Persians; and, though besieged by the emperor's sons, Aurungzib and Dârâ, was never again added to the Mogul empire.

53. Saad Ullâ Khân.—A.D. 1653-1655 saw the completion of

the great revenue settlement of the Dakhan, and the death of Saad Ullâ Khân, the most able and upright minister that had ever appeared in India.

Shâh Jehân sent his third son, Aurungzib, as viceroy into the Dakhan; and that prince seemed determined to recompense himself for failures beyond the Indus by subjugating Bijapûr and Golconda.

54. Shâh Jehân's Family.—Shâh Jehân had four sons and two daughters.

(a) Dârâ Shako was then in his forty-second year: frank, generous, a free-thinker (and thus obnoxious to the Muhammadans, who beheld in him another Akbar), imprudent, and daring. Dârâ, like his great-grandfather, was deeply interested in theological studies. He studied Sanskrit, and translated the Upanishads (parts of the Vêdas) into Persian.

(b) Shuja was forty years old, an effeminate sensualist. He chiefly resided at Râjmahâl, as Viceroy of Bengâl.

(c) Aurungzib, was thirty-eight years old; a master of dissimulation; an accomplished soldier; of handsome person; a bigoted Muhammadan; and, above all, intensely ambitious.

(d) Murâd, the youngest, was brave and generous; but dull in intellect, self-willed, and an abandoned sensualist.

(e) The eldest daughter was Jehânara, or Padshâh Begum; the favourite, and a great supporter of Dârâ.

(f) The younger daughter, Roshen-râi, was an active and intriguing partisan of Aurungzib.

On the news of their father's illness reaching them, in spite of Dârâ's efforts to conceal it, both Prince Shuja, then Viceroy of Bengâl, and Prince Murâd, Viceroy of Gujarât, assumed the royal title, and prepared to march on the capital. Aurungzib more cautiously advanced to the northern boundary of his province; secured Mîr Jûmla, the general; and entered into a negotiation with Murâd. He represented to that weak prince that he himself was only desirous of going to Mecca; that he would unite with Murâd to oppose the infidel Dârâ, and his idolatrous general, Jeswant Sing; and then would seek a reconciliation with his father.

Dârâ now met and defeated Shuja near Benâres, and the discomfited prince returned to Bengâl.

Aurungzîb joined Murâd in Mâlwa, and a battle between their combined forces and those of Jeswant Sing was fought near Ūjein, in which the princes were victorious. Aurungzîb still treated Murâd as his superior. Dârâ now advanced one day's march from Âgra to meet Aurungzîb, and a severe engagement took place (**Battle of Âgra**). Dârâ fled to Delhi. Three days after, the accomplished dissembler entered Âgra; and, finding it impossible to shake the old emperor's attachment to Dârâ, sent Sultân Muḥammad to make his aged grandfather prisoner in the citadel.

Thus ended Shâh Jehân's reign in 1658, though he lived till December 1666.

55. His Buildings.—The Tâj Mahâl at Âgra, the Mausoleum of Mumtâz Mahâl, Shâh Jehân's queen, built of white marble, and decorated with mosaics of many-coloured precious stones, is in solemn brilliance unsurpassed by any human erection.

56. VI. Aurungzîb.—AURUNGZIB (= *ornament of the throne*) or ÂLAM-GIR I. (A.D. 1658-1707), was the sixth Mogul Emperor.

His title was Âlam-gîr (= *conqueror of the universe*). By this he is best known in Muhammadan histories of India.

57. After gaining possession of Âgra and imprisoning his father, Aurungzîb was proclaimed emperor, though he was not crowned for a year afterwards.

Wars with his Relations.—He had still to pursue Dârâ, and to meet Shuja, who was advancing from Bengâl. The former fled to Mûltân, and from thence to one after another of the Râjpût chiefs. He was at length betrayed by the chief of Jân, taken to Delhi, where he was paraded through the streets, and put to death as an apostate from Muhammadanism.

Shuja was soon overthrown by Mir Jûmîla. Meanwhile Aurungzîb's son, Muhammad Sultân, had deserted to Shuja, married his daughter, and then again joined Mir Jûmîla. For this act of disobedience he was kept in prison for seven years in Gwâlîôr by his father.

Shuja with all his family perished miserably in Arakân, whither he had fled.

Suleimân, son of Dârâ, was also taken, and consigned, with all the other members of the family, to Gwâlîôr, where he soon died.

Murâd, on some frivolous excuse, was put to death, A.D. 1661.

Thus, by a series of murders, Aurungzîb had now made his throne secure. He could plead his father's example.

58. Death of Mir Jâmla.—Mir Jâmla, after subduing Assam, died near Dacca, while planning the conquest of China. Thus was the emperor relieved of the presence of a minister and general whose abilities and renown excited his jealous fears.

59. Aurungzîb's Illness.—Aurungzîb had now a violent illness, which shook the foundation of his power. During this sickness of the emperor, Jeswant Sing, the powerful Râjpût chief of Jôdhpûr, whose dominions extended from Gujarât to Âjmîr, and Muhâbat Khân (son of the great general) from Kâbul, combined to effect the release of the ex-emperor, Shâh Jehân.

Intrigues were also made by various parties to place one of Aurungzîb's sons (Moazzim, Akbar, or Azam) on the throne. The excitement of danger restored him to health, and by energy and promptitude he defeated all these projects.

60. Sivajî.—It was now that Sivajî came to an open rupture with the emperor.

Shayista Khân.—Shayista Khân, son of Nûr Jechân's brother, Asaf Khân, was then viceroy of the Dakhan, and resided at Aurungâbâd. Driven from thence by Sivajî, he was made viceroy of Bengâl in 1663.

61. Shâh Jehân's Death.—Shâh Jehân died in A.D. 1666; an almost forgotten prisoner.

About this time Little Thibet and Chittagong were added to the emperor's dominions.

In 1676, the Satnarâmis, near Nârnôl, rebelled. These fanatics imagined themselves invincible; and Aurungzib with his own hand wrote texts from the Kurân, to be fastened on the standards of his troops, to dissolve the spells of the rebels. They were defeated and dispersed; but this led to the imposition of the Jizya, a poll-tax on all infidels.

62. Discontent now spread rapidly, and with reason, throughout every class of Hindûs: the tolerant system of Akbar had been formally abandoned. A letter, ascribed to Jeswant Sing, is still extant, in which the writer expostulates with the emperor on his intolerance; commends the former princes of the house of Teimûr for their liberality; declares that the empire is going to ruin; and that every species of misgovernment and oppression is rife throughout the land. Jeswant Sing died in 1677.

Râjpût Rebellion.—Aurungzib's arbitrary conduct towards the widow and children of Râja Jeswant Sing kindled the enmity of the Râjpûts into a flame.

Dûrga Dâs, a faithful noble of Jôdphûr, Râm Sing of Jèypûr, Râj Sing of Mèwâr, and others, combined to protect the children of Jeswant Sing, and to resist the payment of the hated and iniquitous Jizya.

The emperor exerted himself with his usual energy. His sons—Moazzim from the Dakhan (afterwards Shâh Âlam I.), Azâm from Bengâl, and Akbar—were sent into the Râjpût country, where, by the emperor's orders, all the horrors of the most ruthless war of extermination were visited upon the unhappy people. This cruel treatment, successful for the time, for ever alienated the high-spirited Râjpûts.

63. **Rebellion of Prince Akbar.**—Dûrga Dâs adopted a policy the most calculated to wound the emperor. He induced Akbar, his favourite son, then twenty-three years of age, to rebel, promising him the assistance of the Râjpût chiefs. Akbar had soon 70,000 men under his command. But the emperor was again successful; and Akbar, his army having been wiled or terrified into desertion, fled to the Konkan, where he became a fugitive among the Mahrattas, and where Sambajî received him. Disgusted

with Sambaji's manners, he soon retired to Persia, where he died in A.D. 1706.

64. Peace with the Rājputs.—In 1681, Aurungzib made peace with the Eastern Rājputs.

Ajit Sing.—It was stipulated that Ajit Sing, son of Jeswânt Sing, should be restored to his father's dominion of Mârwar when he came of age. There was not, however, and could not be, any real peace.

65. Wars in the Dakhan.—The wars of Aurungzib in the Dakhan are the most important. He was weakening and ruining the Muhammadan kingdoms of the Dakhan and the ancient sovereignties of India, when he should have aided them and strengthened them in their contest with the common enemy, the plundering Mahrattas.

His general, Khân Jehân, effected nothing against the Mahrattas.

Dilîr Khân, who succeeded him, invaded Golconda and Bijapûr without any decisive results.

He died in 1684, neglected by the emperor.

Aurungzib arrived at Burhânpûr in 1683, and spent two years there and at Aurungâbâd before advancing to Ahmednagar.

In this expedition several armies were kept continually in motion, under Prince Moazzim, Prince Azam, Prince Kâm Baksh, Khân Jehân, and the emperor himself.

Bijapûr was taken, and its monarchy finally destroyed in A.D. 1686. The chief agent in the capture was Ghâzî-ud-dîn I., father of Nizâm-ul-mulk, though the emperor himself was present.

Golconda.—Golconda fell in the following year; its king, Abu Hussain, being sent a prisoner to Doulatâbâd, where he died. But of his new conquests the emperor never had more than mere military possession.

We find Cuddapa, Conjeveñam, and Pânamali occupied by the imperial troops in the same year.

Sambaji.—The capture and death of Sambaji, and the captivity of Sâhu, belong to Mahratta history. The emperor's camp for some years after this was at Brimhâpurî, on the Bhîma.

66. The Mahrattas.—The aged emperor was *apparently successful*. He took Satârâ in April 1700, and in the following months nearly all the Mahratta strongholds were seized. These sieges involved an immense waste of treasure and life. Every obstacle existed, arising from floods, pestilence, heat, and the nature of the country.

Sir William Norris.—In 1701 Sir William Norris, an English ambassador, visited Aurungzîb in his camp.

The Mahrattas, with an elasticity that ever marked them, began to recover themselves, soon retook some of their forts and so embarrassed the emperor that he withdrew to Ahmednagar, which he re-entered in 1706. He had now been twenty years engaged in these fruitless harassing wars. The Mahratta waves swept over his track as soon as he retreated. He had made no real impression upon them; and of this he was himself aware before his death. They had learnt by years of conflict to despise and conquer their Mogul foes.

67. Aurungzîb's Death.—Aurungzîb entered Ahmednagar but to die. His death was a melancholy one. His life had been one great mistake. He had disquieted himself in vain. Troubled with remorse, harassed by anxieties, conscious that after his death all he had tried to effect would be rendered vain by the contests of his sons for the throne, and reflecting upon the universal decay, which he could not but perceive in every part of the state.

He died February 21, 1707, in the eighty-ninth year of his age. His tomb is at Rauzah, six miles from Doulatâbâd.

His Character.—Aurungzîb is the emperor most admired by the Muhammadans, for he was most austere, a devotee, a just judge, a laborious ruler.

Yet he was thoroughly unsuccessful. He did not maintain discipline, seeming afraid to alienate by punishing. Mistrustful of all around him, cold-hearted, and in all his dealings with Hindûs partial and prejudiced, he was the very reverse of Akbar. We find him even in 1683, at Burhânpûr, levying the Jizya from all Hindûs under his sway in the Dakhan, as well as in Hindûstân. If Akbar was the real founder, Aurungzîb

was the destroyer of the Mogul dominion in India. With Aurungzib, it has been said, the empire of the Moguls passed away.

68. Survey of India at this period.—At this critical period in the history of India, the thoughtful student will pause and survey the groups still on the stage from which so distinguished an actor now disappears.

(a.) **Moguls.**—Of the Moguls themselves, the next section will tell us all that is necessary.

(b.) **Mahrattas.**—In the Dakhan, the Mahrattas, apparently humbled, are in reality placed, by the destruction of the Dakhani kingdoms, in the most favourable position for founding a permanent dominion. The Peshwâs are coming.

(c.) **English.**—The English merchants have now factories on every part of the coast, and the three Presidency towns and forts of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, are under a regular government, promising stability and development.

(d.) **French.**—The French, too, are flourishing. The rivalries have not begun.

(e.) In England Queen Anne is on the throne. Marlborough, the Zulfikâr Khân of England, is in the zenith of his glory. (Blenheim, 1704.) Gibraltar had been taken (1704). The parliaments of England and Scotland were united in the year Aurungzib died.

The battle of Almanza, in the wars of the Spanish Succession, was gained by the Duke of Berwick the same year.

The Act of Settlement has been passed. A powerful aristocracy in England, like the clique of Omrahs in Delhi, governs the kingdom.

(f.) **Portuguese.**—The Portuguese have sunk to their present level.

(g.) **Dutch.**—The Dutch are busily engaged in trade.

(h.) Soon Dupleix (1731), Clive (1743), and Hastings (1750), will be in India. Fifty years will bring us to PLASSEY (1757).

(i.) **Bengâl.**—Meanwhile Mîr Jaffîr (or Mûrshed Kûli Khân), the founder of Mûrshedâbâd, is viceroy of the three Sûbâhs of Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa

(j.) **Guru Govind.**—The greatest of the Sikh Gurus, Guru GOVIND, a man worthy to rank with Sakya Muni, was killed in 1708. He was a man of genius and heroism.

Khâfi Khân.—The chief historian of those times is styled Khâfi Khân. The emperor strove to prevent any history being written. Mir Muhammad Hushîm, however, composed his history in the latter part of the reign ; but concealed it. Hence his title, Khâfi Khân (= *the concealed*).

This historian himself was sent to Bombay in 1695, on a mission. A ship bound to Mecca had been seized by English pirates, and ‘although the Christians have no skill at the sword, by bad management the vessel was taken,’ says the report. (1693.)

Aurangzîb ordered the English factors to be seized at his ports, and the English laid hold of the emperor’s officers. Khâfi Khân was to settle the dispute.

English in Bengâl in 1686.—Sir Josiah Child made a futile attempt to effect a settlement in Bengâl, by force of arms, in 1686.

This incident excited great enmity in the emperor’s mind against the English. In 1690, however, Mr. Charnock made his peace with the emperor.

THE SIX RULERS OF THE FALLING EMPIRE.

69. VII. Shâh Âlâm I.—The SEVENTH Mogul emperor was BAHÂDAR SHÂH (= *the valiant king*), or SHÂH ÂLAM I. (= *king of the universe*), A.D. 1707-1712.

Civil Wars.—On the death of Aurungzîb, there was the usual contest between the sons of the deceased emperor. These were three, Moazzim, Azam, and Kâm Baksh. The deceased emperor had willed that the eldest of these should be emperor, taking Delhi for his capital, and governing the north and east ; while Azam was to share the dominion, having Âgra as his capital, and governing the south and south-west ; and to Kâm Baksh were assigned the kingdoms of Golconda and Bîjapûr.

Moazzim and Azam, however, simultaneously claimed the

crown, and a bloody battle was fought south of Âgra, in which Azam and his sons were slain.

Kâm Baksh still refusing to acknowledge Moazzim, a battle was fought near Haiderâbâd, where he also was defeated and killed.

70. Moazzim, his brothers being thus disposed of, assumed the title of BAHÂDAR SHÂH, but is oftener called SHÂH ÂLAM I.

Omrahs.—His great Omrahs were—

(a.) Assad Khân a distinguished general in Aurungzib's Dakhan wars. He died in 1716, the last of the ancient Mogul nobility.

(b.) Zulfikâr Khân, the son of (a) viceroy of the Dakhan.

(c.) Monim Khân, the Vazîr, an able and well-intentioned minister.

(d.) Dâûd Khân Pannî, one of Aurungzib's Patân officers, acting for Zulfikâr Khân.

Others were coming into notice, especially those by whom the empire was destined to be dismembered.

71. **The Mahrattas.**—Their power was now rapidly increasing.

SÂHU was released by Prince Azim, who hoped for the assistance of the Mahrattas.

There was civil war among the Mahrattas. The Mogul Government supported SÂHU, and allowed him the *Chout*, or fourth of the revenue.

72. **Râjpûts.**—There were three great Râjpût princes at that time, and these made a league for the protection of their country against the Muhammadans. They were—

(a.) The Râna of Oudipûr, whose name was Râna Umra (1700-1716);

(b.) The Râja of Mârwar, Ajit Sing, son of Jeswant Sing, who was the acknowledged Râjpût leader; and

(c.) The Râja of Jeypûr, Jey Sing II., a great mathematician and astronomer.

Under these chiefs the Râjpûts obtained from Bahâdar Shâh an acknowledgment of virtual independence.

73. The Sikhs.—These were the disciples of Nanak (born near Lâhôr, in 1469), who flourished in the time of Bâber. He taught a comprehensive and tolerant monotheism, or, more correctly, pantheism, and sought to comprehend Hindûs and Muhammadans in one. The leading notions of Sufism and the Vêdânta are blended in his system. The tenets of this sect in many respects resembled those of the Vaishnavas. Their sacred book, the Adhi Granth, written in old Hindî, consists mainly of hymns of Hindû origin. The book is worshipped and chaunted, but is perfectly unintelligible to the Sikhs themselves. Persecution changed an inoffensive sect into a military commonwealth.

Guru Govind, their tenth Guru or spiritual chief, in 1675 completed their organisation. He was slain by a private enemy (1708), but his relatives and followers were visited with every species of cruelty.

He was killed at Mandair, near Bîdar, on the Godâvarî. There is a Sikh college on the spot.

Banda.—Banda was now their leader. Their hatred to the Musalmâns, inflamed by long persecutions, broke out into the most fearful atrocities.

Bahâdar Shâh in person went against them, and drove them into the hills, but failed to capture Banda, and the check to the Sikhs was merely temporary. In this struggle the emperor spent his last years.

74. Death of Shâh Alam I.—This emperor died in February 1712.

75. VIII. Jehândâr Shâh (A.D. 1712-1713) was the eighth Mogul Emperor.

His Accession, 1712.—Though he was the weakest of the brothers, Mirza Moiz-ud-din, through the influence of Zulfikâr Khân, overcame his rivals, and, with the usual slaughter of kindred, ascended the throne.

Zulfikâr.—Zulfikâr's motive for aiding him was the belief that the weakness and incapacity of the emperor would throw all the power into his hands, but his arrogance disgusted the Omrahs even more than the low debauchery of his master.

The Two Seiads.—Farukhshîr, the second son of Azim-u-Shân, the second son of Bahâdar Shâh, escaped the slaughter, and solicited the aid of two valiant, able, and powerful noblemen, henceforth to be very prominent in this history: SEIAD HUSSAIN ALI, Governor of Bahâr, and his brother SEIAD ABDULLAH, Governor of Allâhâbâd.

76. His Death.—These Seiads, the king-makers of India, espoused Farukhshîr's cause warmly; and in a battle near Âgra defeated Zulfikâr and his puppet emperor, Jehândâr. The former was strangled, and the latter was also put to death.

77. Zulfikâr Khân.—This is the place for some continuous account of the celebrated rival 'king-maker,' Zulfikâr Khân. His father was Assad Khân, the head of one of the oldest noble families in the empire.

He distinguished himself under Aurungzîb in the war with the Mahrattas, A.D. 1690; in the course of which, disgusted at being nominally under the prince Kâm-Baksh, he held traitorous intercourse with the Mahrattas, but at length took Ginjî. His and his father's influence gave Bahâdar Shâh the throne; and by that emperor he was made Viceroy of the Dakhan. His advice led to the release of Sâhu. He raised Jehândâr Shâh to the throne, and was his Vazîr, but fell a victim to his own treachery; for, having surrendered his master to the Seiads, he was, by their order, strangled.

78. IX. Farukhshîr.—FARUKHSHIR, A.D. 1713-1719, the ninth Mogul Emperor.

The personal history of this imbecile emperor is now of much less importance than those of the powerful Omrahs, who exercised the sovereignty in his name, and their four rivals. Of six of these a few particulars are added.

The Seiads.—The Barha Seiads (=descendants of the prophet) were a powerful tribe in Bahâr, where they had been long settled. The brothers Hussain Ali and Abdullah Khân were men of much courage and ability; had been promoted by Azim-u-Shân, the emperor's father, when he was Viceroy of Bengâl.

The former was now made Vazîr, and the latter commander-in-chief.

79. Nizâm-ul-mulk.—Nizâm ul-mulk (=regulator of the kingdom, born in 1644 and died in 1748) at that time was a veteran warrior, a man of consummate cunning, and a prominent person from this period till his death. His descendants are the Nizâms of Haiderâbâd.

80. Sâdat Khân, Ruler of Oudh.—Sâdat (=propitiousness) Khân, originally a merchant from the Persian province of Khorasân, was the coadjutor and rival of the Nizâm-ul-mulk; held a high military command, and founded the modern kingdom of Oudh. His descendants are the present ex-princes of Oudh.

81. Mîr Jûmla.—Of less importance is Mîr Jûmla, a personal favourite of the emperor, who plotted unsuccessfully against the Seiads; was for a time Governor of Bahâr, and, finally, was dismissed to his native town of Mûltân. He must not be confounded with others bearing this title.

82. Dâûd Khân.—A warrior of great and enduring renown was Dâûd Khân, who acted for a time as Viceroy of the Dakhan, but was now removed to Khândêsh and Gujarât.

He fell in a desperate attempt to overthrow the powers of Hussain Ali. These two failed in their attempts against the Seiads: the two former, in due time, as we shall see, succeeded.

83. Farukhshîr's Queen.—Farukhshîr married a Râjpût princess, daughter of Ajit Sing, the Râja of Mâr-wâr. This marriage was the condition of a peace with the Râjpûts.

Intermarriages.—It will be seen that the Muhammadan emperors often married Hindû ladies. This, doubtless, was a main reason why the Mogul emperors were never, with the single exception of Aurungzîb, bigoted Muhammadans. The mixture of races tended to preserve the imperial family from degeneracy.

84. Surgeon Hamilton.—A matter of importance in the history of British India is connected with this marriage.

At the time it was pending (A.D. 1716), a deputation from the small British factory at Calcutta was sent to the emperor. It happened that with the deputation was a Scottish surgeon, Gabriel Hamilton (a name to be had in honour); and, as the emperor's marriage was delayed by his sickness, the services of the British doctor were sought for, and were successful. The emperor gratefully left it to Hamilton to choose his reward; and he, with rare disinterestedness, asked, on behalf of the Company, for the zemindaship of thirty-seven towns in Bengâl, and exemption from dues on their goods. This in a remarkable degree strengthened the position of the British in India.

85. The Sikhs.—The most important event of this reign is the effectual check given to the progress of the Sikhs.

Their leader still was Banda, under whom they were guilty of great atrocities, and who was at length overcome, and sent, with 740 persons (saved for the purpose from a general massacre), to Delhi. They were there exposed to every insult from the justly enraged population. Banda was the victim of the most inhuman barbarities, while his followers were beheaded on seven successive days.

They met torture and death with the most heroic courage, disdaining to a man to purchase life by renouncing their faith. The British deputation was at the time at Delhi.

They were nearly extirpated. In 1839 there were only 500,000 of them.

86. The Mogul territories were now mercilessly ravaged by the Mahrattas.

Nizâm-ul-mulk.—Nizâm-ul-mulk was made Viceroy of the Dakhan in 1713; but was soon removed to make way for the all-powerful Seiad Hussain Ali, who was so unsuccessful that he was compelled to make a treaty (1717) with Râja Sâhu, acknowledging his claim to his grandfather's possessions, with all later conquests.

The Mahrattas aid Hussain.—A body of 10,000 Mahrattas actually marched with Hussain Ali, to enable him to make good his position at Delhi against all rivals. One of their leaders was

the first Peshwâ, Bâlâjî Vishwanâth, who remained in Delhi till he obtained, in 1720, a ratification of this treaty from Muhammad Shâh.

87. Assassination of Farukhshîr.—The vacillating Farukhshîr contrived several plots to rid himself of the Seiads; but Hussain Ali anticipated them by assassinating the unfortunate emperor.

88. X. Rafi-ud-Darajât.—The Seiads now set up a youth called RAFI-UD-DARAJÂT, who died in three months of consumption. (A.D. 1719, February-May.)

89. XI. Rafi-ud-Daula.—They then selected RAFI-UD-DAULA, who also died in a few months. These two names are not in the Muhammadan lists of emperors.

90. XII. Muhammad Shâh.—They at length chose Roshen Akhter, who took the name of MUHAMMAD SHÂH, and was the last emperor that sat on the peacock throne of Shâh Jehân. He owed his ultimate success mainly to the firmness and ability of his mother. Thus, within twelve years after Aurungzib's death, five princes had occupied the throne.

91. The Overthrow of the Seiads, 1720.—*This emperor's reign, which lasted from A.D. 1719 to 1748 is one of the most eventful of the whole series.* The first great event in it was the overthrow of the 'king-makers.' This was chiefly effected by a combination between Nizâm-ul-mulk and Sâdât Khân. (**Nizâm-ul-mulk in Rebellion.**) The former openly rebelled, marched southward to recover his old vice-royalty of the Dakhan, and overthrew the generals sent against him by the two Seiads, whose prestige was now well-nigh destroyed.

The two Seiads were Shîas, and their opponents were Sunnis.

Hussain's Death.—Hussain Ali, taking with him the emperor, left Delhi for the Dakhan to oppose Nizâm-ul-mulk; but was assassinated on the march.

The Battle of Shâhpûr, 1720.—The surviving brother, Abdullah, acted with energy, set up another emperor in Delhi, and

marched to meet the conspirators, but was defeated in the *battle of Shâhpûr*, between Delhi and Âgra ; soon after which Nizâm-ul-mulk returned and took the office of Vazîr.

92. The Râjpûts now made good their independence in Âjmir, under Râja Ajit Sing, the late emperor's father-in-law.

93. **Nizâm Independent, 1724.**—Nor did Nizâm-ul-mulk long remain at court. Disgusted with the laxity that prevailed there, he retired to the Dakhan, where he became from that time virtually independent.

94. **Sâdat Khân Independent, 1724.**—Sâdat Khân, the Persian adventurer, who had not been long in India, following his example, proceeded to make himself independent in Oudh, of which he was governor.

95. The attacks made by the Mahrattas upon the empire, and their struggles with Nizâm-ul-mulk will be most fittingly recorded in the history of the Mahrattas. For ten years the old Tûrkô-mân was an efficient barrier against these formidable foes of the empire. But it was chiefly during this weak reign that the Mahrattas extended their supremacy.

96. **Nâdir Shâh, 1738.**—At this time (A.D. 1738) occurred the Persian invasion of India by the terrible Nâdir Shâh, '*the boast, the terror, and the execration of his country.*' This famous warrior, a shepherd from the shores of the Caspian, had delivered Persia from foreign invaders, and had usurped the throne of the country which he had liberated.

Death of Sâdat Khân.—It is said, on what seems sufficient authority, that he was invited to India by Nizâm-ul-mulk and Sâdat Khân; that he reproached them in Delhi with their perfidy, and spat on their beards; that the two disgraced traitors resolved to take poison; that Nizâm-ul-mulk, however, only pretended to commit suicide, but that Sâdat Khân, outwitted by his rival, really did so; while the former, in after days, was wont to make merry at his too credulous rival's ex-

pense. It is certain that Sâdat Khân died (1739) while Nâdir Shâh was in possession of Delhi.

97. Dakhan Affairs, 1741.—The Peshwâ, Bâjt Râo, died in 1740. This led Nizâm-ul-mulk, whose power in Delhi was supreme, again to leave court for the Dakhan (1741). His eldest son, Ghâzi-ud-dîn (III.), and his relative, Kamr-ud-dîn, were left as the emperor's confidential advisers. (**Death of Nizâm-ul-mulk.**) He died the same year as the emperor, A.D. 1748.

98. The Rohilkhas at this period rose into importance. The district now called Rohilkhand was occupied by Âli Muhammad, an Afghân freebooter, in 1744.

99. The Afghân Invader, Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî.—And now appeared another, and the last, of the great invaders of India; one who changed the whole history of the land; who six times passed the Attock—the first time in the army of Nâdir Shâh, and the last time to break the Mahratta power at the FOURTH battle of Pânipat—AHMAD SHÂH ABDÂLÎ.

This was the Abdâlî's first appearance in India at the head of an army; but the valour of Prince Ahmad (the heir-apparent), and of the Vazîr (1748), for a time rolled back the tide of invasion.

From this expedition the Prince Ahmad Shâh was recalled by the tidings of the death of his father.

The Battle of Sirhind: the Two Ahmads, 1748.—The battle of *Sirhind*, where the Abdâlî was defeated, was *the last great effort of the Mogul empire.*

The Death of Kamr-ud-dîn, and of Muhammad Shâh, 1748.—During this expedition, in 1748, the faithful Vazîr Kamr-ud-dîn was killed by a shot while praying in his tent. He was Muhammad's faithful tried friend and companion; and his death hastened that of his master, which happened in April 1748, after a troubled reign of nearly thirty years.

100. During this reign the north-eastern Subâhs became virtually independent.

Mûrshed Kûli Khân of Bengâl, a most able and energetic ruler, was succeeded in 1725 by Shuja-ud-dîn, who died while Nâdir Shâh was in Delhi.

His son was overthrown by a servant of his father, *Ali Vardi Khân*, a man of talent and experience, whom the emperor confirmed in his usurped dominion.

101. XIII. Ahmad Shâh.—The thirteenth Mogul emperor was AHMAD SHÂH, a son of Muhammad Shâh. His great antagonist was his namesake, the Abdâlî, who now made his second invasion. Peace was purchased, contrary to the wishes of the Omrahs by the premature cession to the Afghân of the provinces of Lâhor and Mûltân, in 1748.

The great men of this emperor's court were Mir Munu, son of the late Vazîr and Viceroy of the Panjâb; Safdar Jung, nephew of Sâdat Khân and his successor in Oudh; Ghâzî-ud-dîn, eldest son of Nizâm-ul-mulk; and a son-in-law of the late Vazîr, who bore the title of Khân Khânân.

102. Ghâzî-ud-dîn IV., Grandson of Nizâm-ul-mulk.—Ghâzî-ud-dîn III. soon left for the Dakhan, where he was poisoned. He left behind him a nephew, Mir Shahâb-ud-dîn (or Ghâzî-ud-dîn IV.), then a bold boy of sixteen, destined to become the most notorious man of his time. Between him and Safdar Jung were renewed the feuds of the grandfather of the one and the uncle of the other.

The Mahrattas, under Mulhâr Râo Holkâr and Jayapa Sindia, espoused the Mogul cause; the Jâts, under Surâjmal, Râja of Bhartpûr, aided the Persian. The weak emperor feared to side with either, and was treacherous to each in turn.

103. Holkâr in Delhi.—Holkâr, by a bold movement, drove the emperor into Delhi, which he took. The nobles then, at the instigation of Ghâzî-ud-dîn IV., pronounced Ahmad unworthy to reign, 1754. He was blinded and consigned to prison, where he died.

104. Dismemberment of the Empire.—The Mogul empire was now in a wretched state. Gujarât, Bengâl, Bahâr, Orissa, Oudh,

Rohilkhand, the Panjâb, the Dakhan (both the portions occupied by the sons of the old Nizâm and that possessed by the Mah-rattas), and the Carnatic were fairly severed from the empire.

Delhi waited to see what puppet the young king-maker would place on the throne.

105. XIV. Âlamgîr II.—ÂLAMGÎR II., the fourteenth Mogul emperor, was uncle to the last emperor. Nothing more need be said of him than that he was assassinated by order of Ghâzî-ud-dîn (IV.) in November 1759.

Oudh : II. Safdar Jung. III. Shuja-ud-doula.—The Nuwâb of Oudh, Safdar Jung, died about this time, and was succeeded by Shuja-ud-doula. Confusion, rapine, and anarchy now prevailed throughout Hindûstân (ch. ix).

The King-maker and Ali Gohar.—The interest of the reign centres in two persons,—the young king-maker, Ghâzî-ud-dîn (IV.),—and Ali Gohar, the heir-apparent, a gallant and generous man, thirty-two years of age at his father's accession, and afterwards emperor under the name of Shâh Âlam II.

The Abdâli in the Panjâb, 1756 (ch. xi.).—The former, by his proceedings in Lâhôr, brought upon the empire, and on Delhi in particular, the calamities of another invasion by the dreaded Ahmad Shâh Abdâli. Mir Munu had died in Lâhôr, 1756, but the Abdâli confirmed his infant son in the government of the Panjâb, under the guardianship of the widow and Adîna Beg Khân, a Mogul of great experience, but a traitor who had always encouraged the Afghân invasions. The Panjâb soon fell into great disorder, in consequence of which the Sikhs increased rapidly; and all were discontented. (**Ghâzî-ud-dîn's Expedition to Lâhôr.**) Ghâzî now thought his time was come for recovering the province; but he forgot the terrible Abdâli, who would certainly resent any interference with his arrangements. Accordingly Ghâzî set out upon an expedition, taking with him the heir-apparent; seized upon the regent and her daughter, to whom he had been betrothed; carried them to Delhi; and appointed Adîna Beg governor of the province. Ahmad immediately crossed the Attock (it was his fourth invasion), and marched to Delhi. The adroit Ghâzî, by the intercession of his

mother-in-law, was pardoned; and rose higher than before, being employed by the conqueror to collect tribute and to pillage.

The Abdâli in Delhi, 1757.—The Abdâli entered Delhi 11th September, 1757. (Comp. September, 1857.)

A pestilence hastened the Afghân's return to Kâbul; but he left his son Taimûr Shâh as his viceroy in Lâhôr, and a Rohilla chief, Nazib-ud-doula, as chief minister at Delhi.

106. The Outrages of Ghâzi-ud-dîn IV.—Ghâzî, as soon as he was relieved of the Abdâli's presence, expelled Nazib; imprisoned the emperor's friend; and laid hands upon the heir-apparent himself. In fact he gave way without restraint to the despotic violence and cruelty of his natural character.

107. Ragobâ's Ill-fated Expedition.—The Mahrattas (comp. ch. v.) are now the central figures on the stage; for this was the time (1758) when Ragunâtha Râo (Ragobâ), at the suggestion of Ghâzî and the invitation of Adîna Beg (again a traitor), made that showy and splendid, but ill-judged and disastrous, expedition into Lâhôr, which led to the ruin of the Mahratta power, in the decisive overthrow of the *fourth* battle of Pânipat (1761).

The Abdâli's Last Expedition.—Ragobâ, the Rash, overran the Panjâb, and returned triumphant, but with no spoil; having incurred a ruinous expense, and roused an enemy, the most formidable the Mahrattas ever encountered, the Abdâli; who now made his fifth, last, and most terrible invasion of Hindûstân.

Delhi occupied.—The Afghân advanced toward Delhi in September 1759, prepared to take full vengeance upon the whole Mahratta race. Ghâzî, whose restless and cruel ambition had thrown everything into confusion, now consummated his crimes by the murder of the harmless emperor, whose headless trunk was thrown into the Jamna. This was in November, 1759.

The assassin then set up a son of Kânu Baksh, by the title of Shâh Jehân; but was soon obliged to flee from Delhi, and take refuge with Surâj Mal, the Jât leader.

Abdâli at Delhi.—The Abdâli now a second time entered

Delhi with fire and sword (1760), but soon retired to his camp at Anupshuhur, on the Ganges.

108. The Mahrattas before the Fourth Battle of Pânipat—The Mahrattas, under Sivadasha Râo, before the fatal battle, captured Delhi, where they elevated Jawân Bakht, a son of the absent Shâh Âlam, to the throne. There was a proposal to place Viswas Râo on the throne, but this was judged inexpedient.

After the fourth (second) battle of Pânipat, the victorious Abdâlî again occupied Delhi; from whence he sent an embassy to SHÂH ÂLAM, or Ali Gohar, acknowledging him as emperor, and appointing his son, Jawân Bakht, regent. He then quitted India.

109. •XV. Shâh Alam II. in exile.—SHÂH ÂLAM, the nominal emperor, was fighting against the English in Bahâr (ch. ix.), while the Abdâlî was crushing the Mahrattas at Pânipat. Until Christmas Day 1771, the emperor was an exile, for the most part in Allâhâbâd, where he kept up a kind of court: a British pensioner. It was not worth his while, during the intervening ten years to attempt to return to Delhi, where Nazib, the Vazîr, with the young prince, managed affairs with great prudence.

Once more the Abdâlî came on the stage to assist Nazib. Having defeated the Sikhs in several actions, he advanced to Pânipat; but soon returned finally to Kandahâr.

He died at Mârûf, near Kandahâr in 1773, in his 50th year, and his mausoleum is the great ornament of this city. His descendants appear in Indian history in after-times.

110. The Mahrattas.—At the end of 1770 we find that Nazib-ud-doula, a virtuous and wise minister, is dead; and his son Zabîta Khân fills his place. The Mahrattas occupy Delhi, where the prince regent and royal family reside. Shâh Âlam is still a pensioner in Allâhâbâd. At this time the Mahrattas made overtures to the exiled emperor, offering for a large sum of money to restore him to his position in Delhi. The English dissuaded him from putting himself into their hands; but imposed no restraint on his actions.

In 1771 he thus, escorted by an English force, crossed the

borders of the district of Allâhâbâd, to join his new friends the Mahrattas; and from that time the Mogul sovereign never claimed the right to interfere in the provinces to the east of that boundary.

There were now two great parties in Delhi, the Musalmâns, anxious to retain their scanty possessions; and the Mahrattas, striving to recover what they had lost at Pânipat.

Zabîta and his army were soon driven out of Delhi, and the Mahrattas were supreme.

We shall not pursue the history of the nominal rulers of Delhi in detail. A few particulars will suffice to connect it with the other parts of this work.

Gholâm Kâdir.—The eldest son of Zabîta Khân was Gholâm Kâdir, who on his father's death in 1786, succeeded to his estates. This young chief asserted his claim to the honours possessed by his father, openly rebelled against the emperor, got possession of Delhi and of Shâh Âlam's person, and, under the pretence that he had concealed treasures, after heaping every species of indignity on the poor old emperor, struck out his eyes with his dagger. His sons and grandsons had been previously tortured before his eyes, August 1788. One of these latter was the very Muḥammad Bahâdar, who permitted, if he did not instigate, similar atrocities in the same building, in Delhi, in 1857.

His Death.—The poor blind emperor was soon rescued by the Mahrattas; but remained in extreme penury until, in 1803 (September 16), he was rescued by Lord Lake.

The sceptre of Hindûstân then passed into the hands of the British Government.

Retribution fell on Gholâm Kâdir; for, falling into the hands of Sindia, he was horribly tortured and mutilated; and at length his head was sent, to be laid at the feet of his sightless victim in Delhi (ch. v.).

111. The eldest son of Shâh Âlam, of whose regency we have read, after many fruitless attempts to place his father in his rightful position, disappeared from the scene in 1770.

XVI. Akbar II.—The second son, AKBAR, succeeded to the

nominal dignity in 1806; and was the SIXTEENTH MOGUL EMPEROR.

112. XVII. The last Mogul, Muhammad Bahâdar Shâh.—His son, MUHAMMAD BAHÂDAR SHÂH, succeeded in 1837. He was the *seventeenth and last* of the emperors of the race of Taimûr the Tatâr (ch. x.).

His sons and grandsons, infamous for their barbarous treatment of English women and children, were shot by Captain Hodson, near Humâyûn's tomb—the splendid monument erected by the greatest of the Moguls to the memory of his father (September 22, 1857).

113. This sketch shows us seventeen emperors of one family reigning in succession in Delhi; a circumstance without a parallel in Indian history. This result was mainly due to Akbar's genius, policy, and personal character.

Of these, only six can be considered as real sovereigns.

Their history exemplifies the two ways in which the course of Oriental dynasties runs. There is first a kind of 'natural selection,' by which, at the death of a ruler, the strongest surviving scion of the race, after conquering and putting to death the weaker members of the family, ascends the musnud. This, in the case of the Moguls, kept the reins of empire for nearly two centuries in vigorous hands.

Then, when there are no strong men to dispute the succession, the authority falls into the hands of powerful ministers, who place the imperial puppet on the throne, consign him to oblivion, and govern in his stead.

From Akbar to Shâh Âlam I., the former course was pursued; there was a contest at each vacancy, and the strongest grasped the reins; after that time, the latter alternative prevailed, and till the rescue of Shâh Âlam II. by Lord Lake (from which time there was really no emperor), we see a succession of powerful and unscrupulous men supreme in Delhi.

The Moguls had to contend with Afghâns, Râjpûts, and Mahrattas. (Nâdir Shâh occupied Delhi without opposition.) Against the Afghâns they strove with varied success: the Abdâli was their undoubted conqueror. The Râjpûts they were able first to subdue, and then to attach to themselves. Aurungzeb never really mastered the Mahrattas, and they soon occupied Delhi. The English have succeeded to their dominion; yet with the Moguls, as such, England has fought no battle.

England released Shâh Âlam II. in 1803, pensioned his son, and transported his grandson—the justice of whose doom no one will be willing to dispute.

CHAPTER IV

A SUMMARY OF THE HISTORY OF THE DAKHAN

1. 1294, First Muhammadan Invasion of the Dakhan.—The history of the Mogul empire is mostly concerned with Hindûstân proper. The Dakhan, however, has its own history. About three hundred years after the first entrance of the Musalmâns into India under Muhammad Kâsim (A.D. 711), the first permanent establishment of a Muhammadan dominion was made in Lâhôr by Mahmûd of Ghaznî, A.D. 1022 (p. 13).

This did not, however, affect the Dakhan. There various flourishing kingdoms continued to exist, governed by Hindû Râjas.

Nearly three hundred years after this (A.D. 1294), the Muhammadan banner was at length carried across the Narbaddah by Allâ-ud-dîn Khiljî, the nephew, murderer, and successor of Ferôz Shâh (p. 21).

The Dakhan now became an extended battle-field; and was so from that time till 1819. Muhammadans are seen fighting there against Hindûs; the Mogul emperors against the Dakhan Muhammadan States; the Mahrattas against both; Haider Ali against the Mahrattas; and, finally, we see the English giving peace to the whole.

2. Use of the term Dakhan.—The Dakhan is the country south of the Narbaddah and Mahânadî rivers; or, all south of the Vindhya range. In general we now restrict the name to the high table-land between the Taptî and Kishtna: the Dakhan proper.

¹ From the Sanskrit DAKSHIN = Southern.

↳ **Its Rulers. Hyderâbâd. Mysôr. Koncan. Carnatic.**—Here was the cradle of the vast Mahratta confederacy. Here too were the Dakhan Muhammadan kingdoms; and here was the Bijanagar Hindû kingdom, so long their rival. Here Nizâm-ul-mulk made for himself a lasting dominion. Here was also the scene of Haidar Alî's usurpation and of Tippû's cruelties. Here the Portuguese flourished. Here the French and English fought.

3. Languages of the Dakhan.—Five languages were anciently enumerated as spoken in the Dakhan: Tamil, Canarese, Telugu, Mahratta, and Uriya. To these we must add the language of the Gônds and other mountain races; with the Tuluva and Malayâlam, which are dialects of the one ancient Southern language, of which Tamil, Canarese, and Telugu are offshoots. These are radically independent of Sanskrit; though they have been enriched by copious additions from that language. Mahratta and Uriya are Sanskrit dialects.

4. The Tamil kingdoms in the South.—In the extreme south two very ancient kingdoms, both Tamil, existed—the Pândya and the Chôla. A Pândyan king is said to have twice sent an embassy to Augustus. We are told that in the thirteenth century in the south 'not a span was free from cultivation' in these provinces. The Pândyan capital was Madura. That of the Chôla kingdom was Conjeveram (Kâncchipuram), till A.D. 214, when Tanjore was founded by Kullôttunga, who made it his residence.

The Pândya kingdom was probably founded in the fifth century B.C. Many traditions exist regarding the PÂNDYÔN rulers. Several of them were distinguished Tamil authors.

The last of the Pândyas was Kûn Pândya (= *the hunch-back*), whose probable date is the middle of the eleventh century A.D.

5. Madura. The Nâyakan princes.—In Madura the Nâyakan princes (the first of whom was *Visvanâtha*, probably from Vijayanagar, an officer of the famous Krishna Râya, 1559), ruled, till conquered in A.D. 1736 by the Nâwab of Arcot. It is said to have

been in 1400 a city 'like Delhi.' Its rulers were perpetually at war with the Chôla kings.

The Poligâr Chiefs.—The origin of the Poligârs (= *tent-men*) of the south is thus told: *Visvanâtha* placed each of the seventy-two bastions of the Madura fort under a chief, to whom he assigned villages on feudal tenure. Their descendants were the Poligârs of South India.

Tirumala Nâyakan.—The greatest of these Nâyakan princes was *Tirumala*, who died in 1659.

The Madura Jesuit Missionaries.—In the Madura kingdom lived the three great Jesuit missionaries, Robert de Nobilibus (1606-1648), John de Britto (1674-1693), and C. J. Beschi (1726).

De Britto died a martyr, having been cruelly put to death by the Sêthupathi of Râmnâd.

We learn from De Nobilibus that in 1610 the Madurai college contained 10,000 students.

6. Chôla Kingdom.—The Chôla kingdom was in later times subject to Vijaya-nagar (Bijanagar), and at length was merged in the Mahratta kingdom of Tanjore.

7. The Çêra Kingdom.—The Çêra kingdom comprehended Travancore, Malabâr, and Coimbatôr. It existed from the first to the tenth century A.D., being absorbed into the Bellâla State.

The Zamorin.—In the ninth century the southern part broke up into many small principalities, one of which (Calicut) was ruled by the Zamorins in A.D. 1497, when Vasco da Gâma landed there.

8. The Ballâla Râjpûts.—A powerful dynasty called the family of Ballâla (or Velâla), who were Râjpûts, reigned over the Kanarese country in the eleventh century.

Their capital was Dwâra Samudra (= *ocean-gate*), about 100 miles N.W. of Seringapatam. They were subverted by the Musalmâns, about A.D. 1310.

9. The Telugu Country.—The Yâdavas, from the ninth to

the end of the twelfth century, ruled over the eastern portion of the Telugu country.

These Yādavas were Rājapûts, and came from Kāttiwār. They ruled at Vijaya-nagar before the foundation of the great state there in 1336.

10. The Châlûkyas.—The Rājapûts of the Châlûkya tribe ruled in Kalyân (*Kaliāni*), about 100 miles west of Haidarâbâd.

The capital of one branch of this family was at one time Rājamandri (from the end of the eleventh to the end of the thirteenth century). They finally fell under Warangal. Before that it is said to have been at Shrikâkolam (Chicacole), and the dynasty to have been of the Pândava race.

A prime-minister of the court of Kalyân, whose name was BASAVA, in the twelfth century, founded the sect of Linga worshippers. The worship of the Linga was long before this an essential part of the Saiva system. BASAVA is now worshipped as an incarnation of the Sacred Bull of Siva. His system is very widely prevalent in South India. Basava was the cause of a revolution, which brought the Châlûkya dynasty to an end, and Kalyân came under the Dêoghur kingdom.

11. Warangal (or Orankal).—More important are the kings of Andhra, or Telingâna, who at the Christian æra reigned in Magadha, and whose capital in after times was Warangal (founded about A.D. 1088), eighty miles east of Haidarâbâd. In A.D. 1323 Warangal was taken by the Nuhammadans.

It soon regained its independence, and became the seat of the Râjas of Telingâna. They were at perpetual war with the Bâhmini kings, until Warangal was destroyed by Ahmad Shâh (A.D. 1435).

12. Orissa.—Orissa was governed by princes of the Kêsari family until A.D. 1131. The Gajapatis ruled in Kuttaek till 1568. Râjas from the north, of a race called the '*Gunga Vansa*,' are also mentioned. It was annexed by Akbar, A.D. 1576.

The Mahratta Country.—As belonging to the Mahratta country (Mahârâshtra=*great kingdom*), we read in the Periplus

(a Greek work, attributed to Arrian, and probably written in the second century A.D.) of Baryagaza (= *Broach*), Plinthana (= *Paithun*), and Tagara (not now certainly known).

Tagara.—Tagara was a famous Râjpût city, probably on the banks of the Godâvarî, a little N.E. of Bhîr, though some think it was the modern Daulatâbâd. (**Sâlivâhana.**) At Paithun, on the Godâvarî, reigned Sâlivâhana, said to have been the son of a potter, A.D. 77. This date forms the æra still in use south of the Narbaddah. From Paithun, the capital was, it seems, removed to Dêoghar, the modern Daulatâbâd.

Our knowledge of the Mahrattas dates from the combination and development of the race under Sivajî (ch. v).

13. Daulatâbâd.—In the beginning of the twelfth century, Râjas allied to the Ballâlas of Andhra ruled in this Dêogiri (= *hill of the gods*) [Dêoghar, or Daulatâbâd]. Some traditions trace these kings up to Sâlivâhana. The whole country at this period was divided among a great number of petty independent Râjas.

These were very wealthy, and the Dakhan seems to have enjoyed peace and prosperity under their rule.

14. Allâ-ud-dîn Khiljî.—Allâ-ud-dîn Khiljî (*the Sanguinary*), in A.D. 1294, with 8000 cavalry, marched through Berâr to Ellichpûr, and from thence to Dêogiri (Dêoghar), where Râm-dêo-Râo-jadow was then reigning. After a show of resistance the Râjpûts agreed to pay an immense ransom, and to cede Ellichpûr and its dependencies. The weakness of the Hindû states in the Dakhan was thus unveiled to the unscrupulous Musalmân leaders; and the Muhammadans, by the unauthorised and rash zeal of Allâ, obtained a footing in the south (p. 21).

15. Kâfûr's Expeditions. (**Malik**=*king*).—Four great expeditions into the south were undertaken during the reign of Allâ-ud-dîn, under Malik Kâfûr, A.D. 1306, 1309, 1310, 1312.

Kâfûr seems to have taken Madura in the last of these expeditions (p. 21).

In the course of these Râm-dêo was induced to visit Delhi,

where his treatment was so generous, that he returned the attached and faithful vassal of the emperor. The Ballála Râjas of Karnata were also conquered; Warangal made tributary; and the whole of the south ravaged as far as Râmêshwar (Râmiseram), where a mosque was built, as the sign of Muhammadan supremacy.

16. **Mubârik Khiljî, 1318.**—Harpâl, a son-in-law of Râm-dêo, strove to throw off the yoke, but was overcome and flayed alive by Mubârik Khiljî (A.D. 1318), who led the expedition himself. At the same time Malabâr was conquered by Khusrû, who avenged the crimes of Allâ-ud-dîn by the murder of every member of his family. (p. 23).

17. **Jûna Khân.**—Jûna Khân, the second of the house of Tughlak, both before and after his accession, led armies into the Dakhan. (A.D. 1322-1326.)

Warangal.—After a severe repulse, he finally took Warangal. (A.D. 1323.) Fugitives from this place are said to have founded Vijaya-nagar Bijanagar, on the banks of the Tûmbhadra, A.D. 1336. Their names were Bukka and Hârihâra. It was twenty-four miles in circumference, and its ruins are of the highest interest.

This kingdom became the most powerful south of the Narbaddah. From 1490 to 1515 it was at its zenith of prosperity, and ruled over the whole Carnatic.

Jûna Khân also took Bidar (p. 24).

18. **The great revolt in the Dakhan, in the time of Jûna Khân, 1347.**—As this emperor's reign was marked by the establishment of the powerful Hindû kingdom of Vijaya-nagar, so was it also by the establishment of the *first independent* Muhammadan kingdom in the Dakhan. The Amîrs of the Dakhan had incurred the displeasure of Muhammad Khân by sheltering some rebellious nobles from Gujarât. These broke out into rebellion, and at length ZUFFIR KHÂN, an Afghân, was recognised as their leader, and having overthrown the imperial general, was elected their sovereign. He had been the slave of a Brâhman

called Gangu, who is said to have foretold his rise, and to have shown him singular kindness.

The foundation of the Bâhmini Dynasty, 1347.—He assumed the title of Sultân Allâ-ud-dîn Hussain Gangu Bâhminî, the last two titles (=the Brâhman Gangu) being in honour of his old master and benefactor, whom he made his treasurer, the first Hindû who held high office under a Muhammadan ruler. This was A.D. 1347. The new Sultan was wise and conciliating, as well as brave. He reigned for ten years at peace with the Hindû kings. At the time of his death the kingdom embraced Mahârashttra, large portions of Telingâna, with Raichûr and Mûdgal in the Carnatic.

The capital of this kingdom was Kulbûrga, west of Golconda, 107 miles W. from Haidarâbad. Here was the seat of a very ancient Hindû sovereignty.

This was the grand rebellion by which the power of Delhi was driven north of the Narbaddah, not to cross it again till the days of Akbar.

This kingdom was at its zenith in 1378 to 1422, under Mahmûd Shâh Bâhminî I., and his nephew Ferôz Shâh.

The poet Hafiz, the Persian Horace, even set out to visit Kulbûrga; but, frightened by a tempest, gave up the idea.

Ahmad Shâh Bâhminî built Ahmadâbâd, Bidar, in 1440.

Bidar (Vidarbhâ) was the capital, in very ancient times, of Bhîma Sêna, whose daughter Damayantî married Nala, so famous in Sanskrit poetry.

PART III.—FROM THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE BÂHMINÎ KINGDOM.

19.—The Bâhminî Kings from 1347-1526.—This dynasty of Bâhminî kings, eighteen in number, reigned in the Dakhan for more than 150 years. (A.D. 1347 to 1526, see table on next page.)

THE 18 BÂHMİNĪ KINGS OF KULBŪRGA (1347-1526).

		A. D.
I.	ALLÂ-UD-DĪN HUSSAIN GANGU BÂHMİNĪ. The founder. [Zuffir Khân.]	1347-1358
II.	MUHAMMAD SHÂH I. Continual war with the Hindû kingdom of Bijanagar, in which half a million of Hindûs perished. He divided the kingdom into four parts: Kulbûrga, Daulatâbâd, Telingâna, and Berâr	1358-1375
III.	MUJÂHID. Invaded Carnatic. Assassinated	1375-1378
IV.	DAUD SHÂH. Assassinated after one month and five days	1378
V.	MAHMŪD SHÂH I. Encourager of literature. Charitable	1378-1397
VI.	GHIYÂZ-UD-DĪN. Assassinated	1397
VII.	SHAMS-UD-DĪN. Assassinated	1397
VIII.	FEROZ SHÂH. The most magnificent of the dynasty. Sent an embassy to Teimûr. The 'merry monarch.'	1397-1422
IX.	AHMAD SHÂH I. Founded Ahmadâbâd, Bidar	1422-1435
X.	ALLÂ-UD-DĪN II. Bidar now made the capital	1435-1457
XI.	HUMÂYŪN SHÂH ZALĪM (the Cruel)	1457-1461
XII.	NIZÂM SHÂH.	1461-1463
XIII.	MUHAMMAD SHÂH II.	1463-1482
XIV.	MAHMŪD SHÂH II. Murder of Khâji Jehân Gawân, the best of the Indian Muhammadans	1482-1518
XV.	AHMAD SHÂH II.	1518-1520
XVI.	ALLÂ-UD-DĪN III. Murdered	1520-1522
XVII.	WULLI-ULLA SHÂH (a pensioner)	1522-1526
XVIII.	KULLÎ-MULLA-SHÂH. Died a pensioner in Ahmadnagar	1526

THE ÂDILSHÂHĪ KINGS OF BĪJAPŪR (1489-1686).

		A. D.
I.	YŪSUF ÂDIL SHÂH. The Portuguese establish themselves in Goa	1489-1510
II.	ISMAEL. Conqueror of Bidar	1510-1534
III.	MULLŪ	1534
IV.	IBRAHĪM I.	1534-1557
V.	ALĪ. Destruction of Bijanagar. Husband of Chând Bibi	1557-1579
VI.	IBRAHĪM II. Splendid mausoleum	1579-1626
VII.	MUHAMMAD. Continual struggles with Sivajî. Splendid mausoleum	1626-1656
VIII.	ALĪ ÂDIL SHÂH. Afzal Khân's master	1656-1672
IX.	SIKANDER. A prisoner	1672-1689

THE NIZÂM SHÂHÎ KINGS OF AHMADNAGAR.

		A. D.
I.	AHMAD NIZÂM SHÂH	1490-1508
II.	BURHÂN I. A distinguished scholar	1508-1553
III.	HUSAIN. Battle of Talikôt. Father of Chând Bibi	1553-1565
IV.	MURTEZA I. (the 'Madman') The great minister Salâbat Khân died 1589. Malojî in his service	1565-1584
V.	MIRÂN HUSAIN (the 'Parricide')	1584
VI.	ISMAEL	1584-1589
VII.	BURHÂN III.	1589-1594
VIII.	IBRAHÎM	1594
IX.	AHMAD II.	1594-1590
X.	BAHÂDUR. (His guardian was Chând Bibi)	1590-1599
XI.	MURTEZA II. Aided Khân Jehân Lôdî. Malik Ambar. Annexed	1637

The date of the extinction of the Bâhminî kingdom (A.D. 1526) is remarkable also as the date of the foundation of the Mogul Empire in India (p. 31). The last real king of the dynasty was Muhammad II. (1463-1486), who subdued Amber Râi of Orissa, and added the Konkan to his dominions, 1477. Mahmûd II., his successor, was a weak prince. Khâji Jehân Gawân was the able, noble, and uncorrupt minister of Muhammadan II. He took Conjeeveram. By him the kingdom was divided into eight provinces. He was treacherously slain by his jealous fellow-courtiers.

20. Six Dakhan Kingdoms.—The governors of the provinces into which this great Dakhani kingdom was divided after the murder of Gowân (the infamous contrivers of the death of that upright minister) made themselves independent at different periods after A.D. 1489. Thus were formed, with the Bijanagar kingdom, those six powerful kingdoms of the Dakhan, which the successors of Bâber eventually subjugated.

The Bijapûr Kingdom, 1489-1686.—Âdil Shâh founded the Bijapûr kingdom, A.D. 1489. From him this dynasty was called the Âdil Shâhî. The kingdom survived till 1686, when it was destroyed by Aurungzib.

Yûsuf Âdil Shâh.—The founder, Yûsuf Âdil Shâh, was descended from Agha Morâd (Amurath II.) of Constantinople. He was a great Omrah of Muhammad Shâh II. of Kulburga.

The struggles of the Bijapûr rulers with Sivaji are related in the next chapter.

The Mahrattas were very numerous in the armies of this state. The Muhammadan kings fomented dissensions among the Hindû tribes, and might longer have held them in subjection if they themselves had been united.

The splendid ruins of Bijapûr still bear witness to the extraordinary grandeur of the city. The dome of the tomb of Muhammad Âdil Shâh is 130 feet in diameter, little less than that of St. Peter's at Rome.

Ferishta, the great historian, resided at the court of Ibrahim Âdil Shâh II., from 1589 to his death, which happened about 1612.

21. Ahmadnagar Kingdom, 1490-1637.—The second of these lesser Dakhan kingdoms was that of *Ahmadnagar*, governed by the Nizâm Shâhî dynasty. This was founded by Malik Ahmad, son of Nizâm-ul-mulk Byherî, an apostate Brâhman of Bijapûr, who chiefly brought about the murder of Gawân. He asserted his independence in A.D. 1490. This kingdom remained till 1637, when it was finally destroyed by Shâh Jehân.

Ferishta was born in Ahmadnagar about 1570, and left that kingdom for Bijapûr in 1589.

22. The Golconda Kingdom, 1512-1687.—The Golconda, or Kutb Shâhî dynasty, was the third of the Dakhani Musalmân kingdoms. It was founded by Kutb-ul-Mulk in 1512. It extended from Bijapûr and Ahmadnagar to the sea on the east. The kingdom of Golconda was finally subverted by Aurungzib, A.D. 1687.

23. The Berâr Kingdom.—The Berâr kingdom was founded in 1484, by Fath-Ullâ Ummad-ul-mulk, and in 1574 was annexed to the Ahmadnagar state. The dynasty was called the Ummad-Shâhî. The capital was Ellichpûr, and the royal residence was at the neighbouring fort of Gâwilgarh.

24. Barîd Shâhi.—It is sufficient to name the Barîd Shâhi dynasty, whose capital was at Ahmadâbâd-Bîdar; and the kingdom of Kândêsh, to which Burhânpûr, with its neighbouring fortress of Asîrgarh, belonged, and which in 1599 was incorporated by Akbar.

25. Portuguese in the Dakhan.—The history of these kingdoms of the Dakhan is connected with that of the Portuguese from A.D. 1498 till the middle of the seventeenth century (ch. vi.).

26. Vijaya-nagar, or Bijanagar, or Narasinga.—The Hindû kingdom of Vijaya-nagar (Bijanagar or Narsinga) long maintained its place among the powers of the Dakhan; and there Hindû valour longest stemmed the tide of Muhammadan conquest. Its limits nearly corresponded with those of the Madras Presidency. To Europeans it was known, strangely enough, as the kingdom of Narasinga. This Narasinga founded a new dynasty in 1490. He built the forts of Chandragiri and Vellore (*vêlûr*=*javelin town*). But in 1565, the jealousy of the Muhammadan kings of Bijapûr, Ahmadnagar, Golconda, and Bîdar, led them to combine to effect its destruction.

They were Alî Âdil Shâh, Husain Nizâm Shâh, Ibrahim Kutb Shâh, and Alî Barîd.

The king then was Râm Râja (the seventh of the dynasty of Narasinga), son-in-law of the Krishna Râya (1509-1524), famous in the vernacular literature of the south.

Battle of Talikôt, 1565.—A battle took place at Talikôt on the Kishtna. The confederates behaved with great barbarity after their victory. Râm Râja's head was exhibited at Bijapûr for a hundred years after, covered with oil and red paint.

The Hindû provinces subject to the Vijaya-nagar kingdom now fell into the hands of Naicks (Nâyakar), Zemindârs, or Poligârs (= *tent-men*).

The Bijanagar kingdom was, however, for many years maintained in a feeble way at Penkonda, Vellore, Chingleput, and Chandragiri. The ruins of Bijanagar are at *Humpi*.

The brother of Râm Râja settled at Chandragiri, eighty miles N.W. of Madras, near Tripati. He made a grant to the

English, in A.D. 1639, of the site of the city of Madras, on the payment of an annual rent of twelve hundred pagodas. Seven years after this, he was a fugitive; and his conqueror, the Sultân of Golconda, gave the English a new lease on the same terms.

The history of the Dakhan will now fall under the following topics, which are considered in their places:—

(1.) The efforts of the Mogul emperors to subjugate the Muhammadan kingdoms of the Dakhan, from A.D. 1595 (AKBAR) to A.D. 1688, when the work was nominally completed by Aurungzib, twenty years before his death (chap. iii.). The Mahrattas were, however, never really conquered by this emperor. We have therefore,

(2.) The Mahratta history (chap. v.). The Mahrattas ruled in Delhi, and were only hindered by Ahmad Shâh Abdâli from overrunning all India.

(3.) During the reign of the twelfth Mogul emperor the empire fell to pieces (p. 61). At this period we have the establishment of the power of the Sûbâhdâr of the Dakhan on an independent footing by Nizâm-ul-mulk, A.D. 1724.

(4.) In the south, of almost equal importance, is the history of Mysôr (chap. xi.) Haidar and Tippû maintained a long struggle with Mahrattas and English.

(5.) But perhaps the most important portion of Dakhan history is that of the struggles of the French and English in the Carnatic, which resulted, after many brilliant achievements, in the establishment of the authority of the latter over all the south of India (chap. vii.).

CHAPTER V

THE HISTORY OF THE MAHRATTAS, FROM THE BIRTH OF SIVAJÎ, A.D. 1627, TO THE PRESENT TIME

Summary of Mahratta History.—To make Mahratta history more intelligible, it is necessary to divide it into six periods :

I. Their founder, or rather temporary restorer, Sivaji's life, A.D. 1627-1680.

II. From Sivaji's death to the liberation of Sâhu, 1680-1708, after the death of Aurungzîb.

III. To the (fourth) *second* battle of Pânipat, 1761.

IV. From 1761 to 1774, and the FIRST MAHRATTA WAR (with the English), 1774 to 1782 : PÂNIPAT to SALBÂL.

V. From 1782 to 1803, and the SECOND and THIRD MAHRATTA (*English*) WARS, 1803, 1804, and 1805 : BASSEIN and ASSAÏ; and the

VI. Minor events subsequent to A.D. 1805, including the FOURTH MAHRATTA WAR.

PART I.—MAHRATTA HISTORY TO THE DEATH OF SIVAJÎ, 1680.

1. The Mahratta Country.—The country of the Mahrattas, or Mahârâshtra (the great province), is bounded on the north by the Sâtpura Mountains; and extends from about Sûrat on the west to the Wain Gangâ, east of Nâgpur. The boundary follows that river till it falls into the Warda (Varada), on to Mânickdurg, thence to Mâhûr, and thence to Goa. On the west it is bounded by the ocean. It is watered by the Narbaddah, the Taptî, the Godâvarî, the Bîma, the Kishtna, and their many tributaries. The famous Mahratta horses are bred on the banks of these rivers.

The Konkan.—The Konkan is the country from the Western Ghâts, called there the Syhadri range, to the sea; and from Sivadashagurh to the Tapti.

Hill Forts.—The character of the Mahrattas has in all periods been much affected by a peculiarity in the physical geography of their country. High masses of basaltic rock protruded through the alluvial soil in every part of the country, rise to the height of from forty to four hundred feet. These with little labour are capable of being made into fortresses, very difficult of access, and of great strength. These were the Mahratta hill-forts.

2. A.D. 1294. Warfare between Mahrattas and Muham-madans.—The invasion of the Dakhan by Allâ the Sanguinary brought the Mahrattas into connection with the Musalmâns, against whom they continued to contend for centuries with varying success, till English arms and the 'subsidiary system' gave peace to the land (chap. ii.).

There were many respectable and wealthy chiefs among the Mahrattas in the times of the early Muhammadan kings; and multitudes of Mahrattas were in their armies, and even in civil employments under them.

The Bhonslê Family.—One family especially of the name of *Bhonslê*, which traced its descent from the royal house of Oudi-pûr, had its principal residence at Verôle (or Ellôra), near Daulatâbâd. Of that family was the renowned SIVAJI MAHÂ RÂJA. His grandfather was Maloji, commander of a party of horse in the service of Murteza Nizâm Shâh I.

Maloji's eldest son was Shâhji. He was high in favour in the Ahmadnagar court. It was told him by the goddess, according to Mahratta legends, that one of his family should become king, restore Hindû customs, protect Brâhmans and kine, and be the first of a line of twenty-seven rulers of the land.

Shâhji fought under Malik Ambar, and in the wars of the Bijapûr Government against Muhâbat Khân.

In 1637, when the Ahmadnagar dynasty was finally destroyed, Shâhji sought employment under the Bijapûr Government of which Muhammad Adil Shâh was then the king.

He was then sent into the Carnatic, where a jâghîr, consisting

of the districts of Kolâr, Bangalore, Ooskotta, Bâlapûr, and Sîra, was given him, and never returned to reside in the Dakhan.

In 1661 he had ravaged the country as far as to Tanjore.

Shâhji's Sons.—He had three legitimate sons: Sanibaji, who was with him in the south; SIVAJI, who lived chiefly with his mother, Jiji Bâi; and Venkaji, sometimes called Êkoji, who was his son by a second wife, and who seems to have occupied Tanjore in 1676.

The history is now chiefly concerned with Sivaji, who may be considered the founder of the Mahratta power, or rather the restorer of the Hindû kingdom which had existed in Dêoghar before Allâ the Sanguinary invaded the Dakhan.

3. Sivaji.—Sivaji was born at the fort of Sewneri, near Junir, in A.D. 1627, the year in which Jehângîr died.

When his father left for the Carnatic, he remained under the guardianship of a Brâhman manager, called Dadaji Konedêo, a faithful and intelligent servant of Shâhji. The jâghîr under his management, which was the foundation of Sivaji's fortunes, consisted of twenty-two villages south of Satârâ, the districts of Indâpûr and Barâmatî, and the Mâwals near Pûna.

In 1636 Prince Aurungzib was temporarily appointed Viceroy of the Dakhan for the first time.

4. Early Training of Sivaji.—Sivaji was early taught all that it was considered necessary for a Mahratta chieftain to know; but he never could write his name. He was brought up a zealous Hindû, and was thoroughly versed in the mythological and legendary stories current among his countrymen. These had taken the greater hold on his heart and imagination from the fact of their being his only study.

His hatred of Muhammadans prepared him for that life of intense hostility to Aurungzib which he led. They were the typical champions of their respective systems.

Tornea, 1646.—From his boyhood he seems to have planned his after career; and he was but nineteen years of age when he seized the hill-fort of Tornea, twenty miles S.W. of Pûna.

He found a large treasure in the ruins near this fort; and this

he spent in building another, which he called Raighur. These forts are both of them on majestic heights.

His advance was now rapid. He obtained possession of Kondaneh (Singhur), Sôpa, and Pârandar, meanwhile trying every art to deceive the Bijapûr authorities, who probably thought they could crush him whenever they pleased.

The suspicions of the Bijapûr king being at length roused by the acts of open violence to which Sivaji proceeded, he sent for Shâhji, built him up in a stone dungeon, leaving only a small aperture; which was to be closed, if, within a fixed time, his son Sivaji did not surrender himself.

Sivaji's Intrigues with Shâh Jehân.—Sivaji at once boldly entered into correspondence with Shâh Jehân, who by his artful representations was induced to admit Shâhji into the imperial service, and to give Sivaji himself the command of 5000 horse.

By the emperor's intercession Shâhji's life was thus saved; but he remained a prisoner for four years.

Sivaji evaded the fulfilment of his promise to enter the imperial service; and, in A.D. 1651, actually carried his marauding expeditions into the Mogul territory; attacking both parties by turns; and availing himself of every turn of fortune to increase his power and possessions.

5. The Treacherous Murder of Afzal Khân, 1659.—In 1659, the Bijapûr Government made an attempt to crush Sivaji, which he rendered unsuccessful by an act of treachery celebrated in Mahratta history: the murder of Afzal Khân.

This officer allowed himself to be enticed by Sivaji's pretended humility into the wild country in the neighbourhood of Pertabghar, where the Mahratta leader then was. By bribing Afzal Khân's Brâhman messenger, Sivaji induced that unfortunate and unwary officer to consent to a conference below the fort, where the jungle had been purposely cut away, and there despatched him in a friendly embrace.

6. Sivaji in 1662.—Without giving details of his campaigns, we may briefly state that, by the end of 1662, he possessed the Konkan from Kalyân to Goa, about 250 miles of coast; and the table-land above, from the Bima to the Warda, about 160 miles

in length, and in breadth at its widest, from Sôpa to Jinjîra, about 100 miles. Through the intervention of his father he now was at peace with Alî Âdil Shâh of Bijapûr; and took up his abode at this period in Raighur.

7. Shayista Khân.—Shayista Khân was now Viceroy of the Dakhan; and Sivaji, at peace with Bijapûr, attacked the Moguls, and ravaged the country to the gates of Aurungâbâd, where the imperial viceroy lived.

Shayista Khân marched southward, and, after storming Châkan, took up his abode in Pûna, in the very house where Sivaji was brought up.

Sivaji now performed one of those exploits, which, more than anything else, make his name famous among his countrymen. With a party of his men at nightfall he slipped unperceived into the city, mingling with a marriage procession; passed through the out-offices of the well-known house, and almost surprised the Khân in his bed-chamber. The Mogul escaped with the loss of two fingers; but his son and attendants were slain. Sivaji made off, and ascended his hill-fort of Singhur (twelve miles distant) amidst a blaze of torches. If this adventure did nothing else, it inspirited his men, and taught them to despise the Moguls.

8. The Sack of Sûrat, Jan. 5, 1664.—His next exploit was the sack of Sûrat. This was particularly offensive to Aurungzîb, as pilgrims to Mecca embarked from Sûrat, hence called Bâb-ul-Makkah, the gate of Mecca.

Death of Shâhji, 1664.—In 1664 Shâhji died. He was possessed, at his death, of Arnî, Porto Novo, and Tanjore, in addition to his jâghîr. This was the foundation of the Tanjore kingdom.

Sivaji's Naval Affairs.—Sivaji at this time assumed the title Râja, and began to coin money. He also collected a fleet of eighty-five ships, sailed down the coast, sacked Barcelôr, and plundered the adjacent country. He even attacked some vessels conveying pilgrims to Mecca, and thus doubly roused the indignation of Aurungzîb, ever the champion of the Muhammadan faith.

9. The emperor now sent Râja Jey Sing (of Jeypûr) and Dilîr Khân into the Dakhan to chastise Sivajî, and to reduce Bijapûr. Jeswant Sing and Prince Moazzim returned to Delhi.

Sivajî's Submission.—Sivajî after a while submitted, and surrendered twenty of his forts, retaining twelve as a jâghîr from the emperor. His son Sambajî was to become a commander of 5000 horse in the Mogul army. He was also to have certain assignments of revenue, called chout (or the fourth), and Surdôshmuikhî (or 10 per cent.), on some districts of Bijapûr. This was the ground for the ill-defined claims of the Mahrattas in after times to plunder and extort moneys from the inhabitants of every province of the empire.

Sivajî then joined the imperial army, and so distinguished himself in the invasion of Bijapûr that the emperor wrote him a complimentary letter, and invited him to Delhi.

10. **Sivajî in Delhi, 1666.**—Sivajî accordingly, in March 1666, with his son, set out for the court.

Aurungzîb received him haughtily; and Sivajî, finding himself slighted, and, in fact a prisoner, contrived to escape with Sambajî and reached Raighur in December. (Shâh Jehân died that month.)

Thus did the emperor foolishly throw away the chance of converting an enemy into a firm friend and vassal.

11. Jey Sing was unsuccessful in his attacks on Bijapûr, and was recalled. Sultân Moazzim was then made viceroy of the Dakhan, and Jeswant Sing accompanied him. Dilîr Khân remained also as a check on both. Such was Aurungzîb's jealous policy.

Sivajî now openly, for a time, resumed his old attitude of defiance; but soon, through the intercession of Jeswant Sing, obtained most favourable terms from Aurungzîb; and in fact was left in perfect independence; though, doubtless, this was done with the intention of crushing him, when an opportunity should present itself.

In 1668 he compelled the courts of Bijapûr and Goleonda to pay him tribute.

He employed the years 1668 and 1669 in revising and completing the internal arrangements of his kingdom.

12. At this time Sultân Moazzim and Jeswant Sing were regularly receiving money from Sivaji. This coming to the knowledge of Aurungzib, he wrote to threaten both with punishment, if the 'mountain rat' were not caught. Sivaji, roused into activity, began to seize upon the forts around. Especially is the storming of Raighur famous, in which affair Tannaji Malusrai, one of his most famous warriors, was slain. He also a second time sacked Sûrat; but the English again successfully defended their factory, 1670.

13. **Sivaji Enthroned.**—In 1674 Sivaji was solemnly enthroned at Raighur. He was then weighed against gold; and the sum, 16,000 pagodas (about ten stone), given to the Brâhmins. From that time he assumed the most high-sounding titles, and maintained more than royal dignity in all his actions.

At the time of his enthronement, Mr. Henry Oxenden (Governor of Bombay, 1707-1709) was at Raighur, negotiating a treaty between Sivaji and the English.

The former agreed, among other things, to give compensation to the English for their losses at Râjapûr.

14. **His Carnatic Expedition, 1676.**—In 1676 Sivaji undertook his celebrated expedition into the Carnatic. His object was to enforce his claims to half the possessions of Shâhjî.

In his way he had an interview with Kutb Shâh of Golconda, when a treaty was negotiated between them.

15. **Sivaji's Conquests in the South, 1677.**—He soon made himself master of the whole of his father's jâghîr; took Gingî, Vellore, and many places in the neighbourhood; and came to an agreement with his half-brother Venkaji, or Êkojî, then in Tanjore, by which a portion of the revenues of the whole territory in his possession was to be paid him annually.

On his return he plundered Jâlna, and was attacked by Dilir Khân's orders on his way to Raighur with the plunder; but succeeded in beating off his assailants and making his escape.

16. His Son, Sambajî.—Sivajî had now a great affliction in the bad conduct of his son, Sambajî; who, being put under restraint for outrageous conduct, actually went over to Dilîr Khân, who strove to use him in the furtherance of intrigues against his father; but, on the emperor ordering that he should be sent a prisoner to Delhi, the Mogul general connived at his escape.

17. His Death, 1680.—Sivajî's last days drew near. He died at Raighur of fever, brought on by a swelling in his knee-joint, on the 5th April 1680.

His Character.—To Sivajî must be conceded a high place among the men who have possessed great qualities, have had a mighty power to influence their fellow-men, and have therefore accomplished great things; and whose name and fame will endure.

With him the dynasty may be said to have fallen, since none of his descendants had any vigour or ability.

Mahratta greatness depended henceforth on the feudatory chieftains and officers of the kingdom.

PART II.—MAHRATTA HISTORY FROM THE DEATH OF SIVAJÎ (1680) TO THE LIBERATION OF SÂHU (1708).

18. The second Râja, Sambajî, 1680-1689.—Sambajî succeeded to the throne, after overcoming a faction that wished to supersede him, and to set up Râja Râm, a younger son of Sivajî.

He began his reign under most unfavourable circumstances. His father had foreseen the troubles that his unrestrained passions would bring on his people. He first of all put to death Soyera Bâi, the mother of Râja Râm; and by this and other executions gained a character for relentless cruelty.

As he had been a fugitive from his father, so now Muhammad Akbar, the fourth son of Aurungzib, fled to him for refuge.

Prince Akbar.—This prince, after engaging in several fruitless attempts to overthrow his father's power, disgusted at Sambajî's character and conduct, quitted his protection in 1688, and passed over to Persia, where he died in 1706.

19. Aurungzib's great expedition.—Sambajî meanwhile be-

sieged Jinjîra, but in vain; and was engaged in petty hostilities with the Portuguese and English, when tidings reached him of the design of Aurungzîb to undertake the subjugation of the entire Dakhan (chap. iii.).

Sultân Moazzim was now sent as Viceroy to Aurungâbâd for the fourth time, and the emperor soon followed (A.D. 1683), and took up his abode at Burhânpûr, spending the remaining twenty-four years of his life in this fruitless struggle.

Wars with the Portuguese.—Sambajî's wars with the Portuguese were disgraced by the barbarities committed by both parties: neither gained any decided success, nor are these conflicts worthy of permanent record (chap. iv.).

20. The Brâhman Kulusha.—Sambajî's minister was a Brâhman called Kulusha, who was learned, but totally unfit to govern a great state. The Râja himself was brave, but imprudent, and, when not in the field, gave himself up to the most degrading vices.

21. During all Aurungzîb's victorious course from 1683 to 1689, Sambajî was most unaccountably in a state of nearly total inactivity.

He was finally surprised in a state of intoxication at Sangamêshwar, with Kulusha.

Death of Sambajî.—Sambajî was offered his life on the condition that he should become a Musalmân.

The enraged emperor ordered a red-hot iron to be passed over his eyes, his tongue to be torn out, and his head to be cut off. He and his minister suffered at Tolapûr, in August 1689.

His death aroused the Mahrattas to form schemes of vengeance, but did not daunt them.

22. The third Mahratta Râja, Sâhu.—Sambajî left a son six years old, whose name was Sivajî, and who is known in history by the name of Sâhu (Shâo), meaning thief, a nickname given to him by the emperor. This boy and his mother were taken prisoners soon after. He remained a prisoner till after Aurungzîb's death. He is considered the third Râja of the Mahrattas.

23. The Regent Râja Râm.—Meanwhile Râja Râm, the half-brother of Sambajî, was declared regent, and making a rapid

flight, established his court at Gingī. Thither the emperor first despatched Zulfikār Khān and Dâūd Khān Pannī, and afterwards the Prince Kām Baksh; but owing to various intrigues, the place was not taken till 1698; and then Rāja Rām was allowed to escape and take refuge in Visâlgurh.

Satârâ taken.—In 1700 the emperor in person took Satârâ, and in the same year Rāja Rām died.

Târa Bâi.—His widow, Târa Bâi, assumed the regency, and this desultory strife between the Moguls and Mahrattas was kept up till the emperor's death.

Whatever judgment may be passed upon Aurungzib in other respects, it must be acknowledged that he signally failed in his schemes against the Mahrattas.

PART III.—MAHRATTA HISTORY FROM THE LIBERATION OF SÂHU, 1708, TO THE (SECOND) BATTLE OF PÂNIPAT (1761).

Sâhu in Delhi.—Sâhu, the grandson of Sivaji, was still a prisoner. Aurungzib had behaved to him with unvarying kindness, had made arrangements for his marriage with two Mahratta heiresses, and had restored to him his grandfather's famous sword Bhavânī, with that of the murdered Afzal Khān. There was even an intention at one time of releasing him, and of granting to the Mahrattas a percentage on the revenues of the districts they occupied, on the condition that they should maintain tranquillity therein, and remain faithful to the Imperial Government.

Azam Shâh, on the death of his father, carried out this plan, and, in 1708, Sâhu obtained possession of Satârâ, though Târa Bâi and her son Sivaji affected to consider him an impostor, and strove to maintain their position, till the death of the latter in 1712.

24. The First Peshwâ, Bâlâji Vishwanâth.—Sâhu's power was consolidated by the wise measures of his able minister, BÂLÂJI VISHWANÂTH, an able Brâhman, who about this time (1712) was received into his service, and may be considered the second founder of the Mahratta confederation. Bâlâji was first sent on an expedition against *Angria*, who had made himself master of the coast south of Bombay, and succeeded in bringing

him to terms. This was so acceptable to Sâhu that Bâlâjî Vishwanâth was, on his return, made PESHWÂ, or prime minister, an office which had carried little authority with it before his time, but which his ability soon made paramount, and which he was able to make hereditary in his family. From this time the Brâhman Peshwâs are the real heads of the Mahratta confederation; the Râjas, the descendants of the great Sivaji, being merely nominal rulers, living in splendour, as state prisoners, in Satârâ.

25. Sâhu's Character.—Sâhu himself was in manners a Muhamadan, indolent and luxurious, delegating his power to his Peshwâ, and openly acknowledging himself a vassal of Delhi; yet under Bâlâjî the Mahratta power was at this time extended and consolidated in a most remarkable manner.

26. The Mahrattas in Delhi.—Negotiations between Sâhu and the court of Delhi were set on foot, in consequence of which, in 1718, Bâlâjî in command of a large contingent was sent to Delhi to assist the Sciads. This was the beginning of Mahratta influence in Delhi, with which, till 1803, they were henceforth to be so closely connected. At this time the Sciad Hussain, by treaty, ceded to them the *Chouth*, or fourth part of the revenues of the Dakhan, the *Surâshmuâ*, or additional ten per cent., and the *Swarâjî*, or absolute control of the countries about Pûna and Satârâ.

27. Bâlâjî's Death, 1720.—An elaborate revenue system was now devised by Bâlâjî, by which, while the Mahrattas extended and enforced their exactions, the Brâhman influence more and more predominated.

Bâlâjî did not long survive his return from Delhi. He died in October 1720, soon after the battle of Shâhpûr, which destroyed the power of the Sciads, and established Muhammad Shâh upon the throne of the decaying empire.

28. The Second Peshwâ, 1720-1740, commonly called the Nânâ.—BÂJÎ RÂO I., the eldest son of Bâlâjî, succeeded to the title of Peshwâ. He is generally styled the SECOND PESHWÂ, and retained the office till his death in 1740.

29. The rise of various Mahratta leaders.—About the year 1724, several Mahratta officers, who afterwards became independent leaders, or founders of states, rose to distinction. The first of these was Mulhârjî HOLKÂR, a cavalry soldier of the Sûdra caste; to whom Indôr was assigned in 1733. The second was Rânojî SINDIA, a descendant of an old Râjpût family, who was at one time the Peshwâ's slipper-bearer, and was promoted for his fidelity in this humble position. The third was UDAJÎ PÛAR, an enterprising warrior of Mâlhwâ. The fourth was PILAJÎ GAEKWÂR (or cowherd), son of Damajî, who by valour and treachery rose to eminence.

The fifth was FATH SING BHONSLÊ.

The sixth was PARSAJÎ BHONSLÊ, who was chiefly employed in Berâr.

30. 1727.—In the year 1727, a long and desultory war between Nizâm-ul-Mulk and Bâjî Râo began, the results of which on the whole were favourable to the Mahrattas. The young Peshwâ and the old Nizâm were now the principal actors on the stage.

31. The Kolhâpûr State, 1730.—The founding of the Kolhâpûr Râj was the first great schism among the Mahrattas. *Sambajî*, the son of Râjis Râû, the younger wife of Râja Râm, was the rival of Sâhu, and Nizâm-ul-Mulk strove to foment the rivalries between the courts of Kolhâpûr and Satârâ, but the former never attained any great influence. It comprised the Konkan from Salsi to Ankolah. By treaty in 1731. the independence of Kolhâpûr was acknowledged by Sâhu.

32. The Mahrattas in Mâlhwâ.—By 1734 Mahratta power was, through the connivance of Nizâm-ul-Mulk, fully established in Mâlhwâ, where Jey Sing, the Râjpût governor appointed by the emperor, a great scholar and astronomer, was entirely under their influence. Dia Bahâdûr, a Brâhman, had been made Subahdâr, and so oppressed the people that Bâjî Râo was invited to come to their relief.

In 1741, Bâjî's sons, Bâlâjî and Chimnajî, were appointed Subahdârs of Mâlhwâ by Muhammad Shâh

33. In Delhi, 1736.—In 1736, Bâjî Râo, with his Mahrattas, after a partial defeat inflicted on them by Sâdat Khân, appeared under the walls of Delhi; and now Nizâm-ul-Mulk was induced for a time to return and assist the harassed emperor.

He collected troops from every quarter, and, marching into Mâlhwâ, met Bâjî Râo near Bhôpâl. Both armies were large and well supplied. Nizâm, at first successful in driving them from Delhi, afterwards allowed himself to be surrounded; and, unable to escape from the blockade, was compelled to sign a convention, granting to the Peshwâ the whole of Mâlhwâ and the territory between the Narbaddah and the Chambal, and to engage to try to obtain fifty lakhs of rupees from the emperor as payment of the Peshwâ's expenses.

This was Nizâm's severest misfortune.

34. Nâdir Shâh, 1738-39.—Soon after this the tidings of the arrival of Nâdir Shâh reached Bâjî Râo (chap. iii.).

He was greatly excited by the intelligence. 'There is now,' said he, 'but one enemy in Hindûstân. Hindûs and Musalmâns, the whole power of the Dakhan must assemble, and I shall spread our Mahrattas from the Narbaddah to the Chambal.'

Nâdir Shâh's retreat soon followed, and he addressed letters, among others, to Sâhu and to Bâjî Râo, bidding them obey Muhammad Shâh, whom he had replaced on the throne, and threatening to return and punish them if they should disobey.

35. The storming of Bassein, 1739.—There was now war between the Portuguese and the Mahrattas. The principal exploit that marks it is the storming of Bassein, May 1739, by the troops of Chimnaji Appâ, the Peshwâ's brother. This was the greatest siege ever undertaken by the Mahrattas. Holkâr and Sindia were both present.

36. Bâjî Râo's last Acts.—Bâjî Râo, after settling his northern frontier, putting his affairs in Mâlhwâ in order, and making treaties with the Râja of Bandêlkhând and the Râjpûts, set himself to achieve the conquest of the Dakhan and the Carnatic.

Nizâm's second sôn, Nâsir Jung, was then at Aurungâbâd as his father's representative; and, after a fruitless campaign, Bâjî was obliged to make peace with him.

Bâji Râo died in 1740. He was ambitious, a thorough soldier, hardy, self-denying, persevering, and, after his fashion, patriotic.

He was no unworthy rival of Nizâm-ul-Mulk, and wielded the mighty arm of Mahratta power with incomparable energy.

This is an era in Indian history.

(1.) Muhammad Shâh is on the throne of Delhi, which has just been robbed by Nâdir Shâh of thirty millions of pounds sterling (1739).

(2.) Nâdir Shâh, the Persian, is reigning from Mûltân to Ispahân. (Assassinated in 1747.)

(3.) Nizâm-ul-Mulk is Umîr-ul-Omrah, or chief of the nobles, in Delhi; but at this time transfers his title to his eldest son, Ghâzi-ud-dîn, and marches to the Dakhan, where his second son, Nâzir Jung, is planning to make himself independent.

(4.) Sâdat Khân is just dead. His nephew, Safder Jung, succeeds him in Oudh (1739).

(5.) The Jâts have recently finished the fortifications of Bhartpûr, a city to be afterwards twice besieged, by *Lake* and by *Combermere*.

(6.) Ali-varî Khân has made himself master of Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa (1740).

(7.) The Rohillas, under Ali Muhammad Khân, have recently established themselves in Rohilkhand.

(8.) Dôst Ali succeeded as Nuwâb of Arcot, in 1733. His son-in-law, Chandâ Sahêb, obtained possession of Trichinopoly in 1736.

(9.) Syajî, grandson of Venkajî, or Êkojî, Sivajî's brother, is ruler of Tanjor.

(10.) The English and French have not as yet risen above the rank of petty traders.

(11.) The Portuguese were humbled by the loss of Bassein. They never recovered the blow.

(12.) The Mysôr state enjoyed peace under its native rulers.

Haidar Ali was just entering the service under Nandirâj. He was then thirty-eight years of age.

37. First Battle of Ambûr.—This year the Mahrattas invaded the Carnatic, attacked Dôst Ali, Nuwâb of Arcot, in the neighbourhood of the Dâmalmchêri pass, routed and slew him. They were bought off by his successor, Safdar Ali, who engaged them to attack Trichinopoly, and dislodge Chandâ Sahêb, his brother-in-law, of whose growing power he was jealous (chap. vii.).

38. Chandâ Sahêb a Captive, 1741.—Trichinopoly was taken (March 26, 1741). Chandâ Sahêb was carried captive to Satârâ; and Morârî Râo was left in charge of the city, which he held till 1743, when he was made chief of Gûti, and evacuated the Carnatic.

39. The Third Peshwâ, 1740-1761.—Bâlâjî Bâjî Râo, commonly called the **THIRD PESHWÂ**, succeeded his father; not, however, without opposition.

At this time, Raghujî Bhonslê may be looked upon as Râja of Berâr; Ananda Râo Puâr, as Râja of Dhâr; Damajî Gaekwâr, as independent in Gujarât; Mulhâr Râo Holkâr, in the south of Mâlhwâ; Jayapa Sindia, in the north-east of Mâlhwâ; Fatih Sing Bhonslê, in Akulkôt; while Sambajî reigned in Kolhâpûr. Sâhu was in his luxurious retirement in Satârâ. Pûna about this time became the residence of the Peshwâs, and may be regarded as the capital of the widely extended Mahratta confederacy. Thus rapidly had Sivajî's kingdom grown, in sixty years, into an empire, destined in another sixty years to fall to pieces. (1680 1740-1800.)

40. Bâlâjî's Confirmation by the Emperor.—Bâlâjî now applied to the emperor (Muhammad Shâh) for confirmation in his office. He was appointed Subâhlâr of Mâlhwâ. This was granted through the mediation of Râja Jey Sing and Nizâm-ul-Mulk. The provinces of Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa, were the scenes of continual wars between Ali-wardî Khân and Raghujî Bhonslê, which ended in the establishment of the Mahratta power in Kuttaek in 1751.

Ali-wardî at length agreed to pay chout (chap. ix.).

41. Hubîb Khân.—Bhaskar Pandit, a general of Raghujî, defeated Ali-wardî, and took prisoner Hubîb Khân, one of his generals, whom he induced to enter the Mahratta service. This man repeatedly ravaged Bengâl, and it was on this account that the Mahratta ditch at Calcutta was dug. The Pandit was afterwards basely assassinated by Ali-wardî.

42. The Abdâll's First Expedition, 1747.—Now began the invasions of Hindûstân by Ahmad Shâh Abdâllî, which ended in the terrible overthrow of the Mahrattas at Pânipat in 1761. On this occasion he was defeated at Sirhind, by Ahmad Shâh, the son of the emperor.

43. The Death of Sâhu, 1748. His Successor, Râm Râja.—Sâhu died in 1748, and was succeeded by Râm Râja, the

posthumous son of the second Sivaji, whose birth had been kept a secret (1712); but Bâlâji, with his usual duplicity, contrived to maintain his ground, and to involve in ruin those who would have made the death of the Râja an occasion for attempting to shake his power.

44. Târa Bâi's Intrigues.—Târa Bâi, the grandmother of the Râja, took occasion, when Bâlâji was absent on an expedition against Salâbat Jung and M. Bussy, to imprison Râm Râja, whose fidelity to the Peshwâ could not be shaken, and to call in Damaji Gaekwâr to 'rescue the Mahratta state from the power of the Brâhmans.'

Bâlâji's energy enabled him to overcome this confederacy. His war with Salâbat Jung and Bussy, though he sustained a great defeat from the French at Râjapûr, was terminated by an armistice in April 1752, without dishonour to the Mahrattas. (ch. vii.)

45. The Progress of the Nâgpur Chief, 1752.—Meanwhile Raghuji Bhonslê had secured the whole province of Kuttaek as far as Balasôre, and had wrested from the Hyderâbâd dominion all the districts between the Wain Gangâ and the Godâvarî. He died in 1755, and was succeeded by his eldest son Janoji.

46. Ragobâ.—It is about this time that Ragunâtha Râo (or Ragobâ), brother of Bâlâji, who was to play such an important part in the first (English) Mahratta war, begins to appear in history. He was brave; but rash, full of ambition, foolish, and headstrong. Whatever he attempted was showy but ill-considered, and he invariably ruined every cause he undertook.

In 1751 we find him in Sûrat (at the time Clive was in Arcot), of which he vainly strove to get possession; and in 1755 he took Ahmadâbâd, the capital of Gujarât, which was in charge of Damaji Gaekwâr.

He returned to the Dakhan in 1756; and the indolence of Bâlâji gave to him and to Sivadasha Chimnaji (son of Chimnaji Appâ, brother of Bâji Râo) the chief management of affairs.

47. Holkâr and Sîndia.—Of the other Mahratta chiefs the

most active now were Mulhâr Râo Holkâr and Jayapa Sindia. The former was the chief aider of Mir Shahâbodîn or Ghâzî-ud-dîn iv., in the deposition of Ahmad Shâh and the elevation of Âlamgîr II. in 1754.

48. The Pirates on the Western Coast.—The English at this time came into closer contact with the Mahrattas. Along the western coast there were several chiefs of Abyssinian descent, called Sidis (a corruption of *Seind*, a name generally given to Africans in India). The most important of these was the Sidi of Jinjîra, an island in the harbour of Râjapûr. His ships swept the whole western coast. Another chief of great power was *Tulajî Angria*, one of a race of pirates whose head-quarters were at *Vizianûr*, or *Gheriah*, and *Saverndrûg*.

Several attempts were made by the English, in concert with the Peshwâ, to rescue Sûrat from the Sidi of Jinjîra, and to prevent the piracies of Angria. Commodore James took Saverndrûg in March 1755; and in 1756 (Colonel) Clive with Admiral Watson, by direction of the Bombay Government, undertook and effected the utter destruction of the pirates' stronghold.

A treaty between the Bombay authorities (Governor Bouchier, 1750-1760) and the Peshwâ was concluded in October 1756, by which, among other things, ten villages, including Bankût, with the command of that river, were given to the English (comp. ch. vii.).

49. The Mahrattas in Mysôr, 1757.—The year 1757, which the battle of Plassey has rendered memorable in English history, was marked by an invasion of the Carnatic by the Peshwâ in person. Mysôr was then under the power of Nandirâj, the Diwân of Chick Kistna Râyar; and Haidar Ali, an adventurer, whose rise resembled that of Sivajî, was then coming into notice. The Mahrattas levied tribute from Mysôr (though a brave resistance was made), as well as from the Nuwâb of Arcot, Muhammad Ali, then under British protection (ch. xii.).

50. Sûrat.—In 1759, after various intrigues, the Bombay Government obtained the town and port of Sûrat, in spite of

opposition from Pâna. A pension was given to the titular Nuwâb. The title became extinct in 1842.

51. In 1760 the Mahrattas obtained their greatest success, as in 1761 they sustained their most disastrous defeat.

The Battle of Ūdghîr, 1760.—The battles of ŪDGHÎR and PÂNIPAT respectively mark the attainment of their highest elevation, and the destruction of their hopes of ever ruling India.

ŪDGHÎR. The Peshwâ had obtained possession of Ahmad-nagar, to wrest which from him, *Salâbat Jung* and Nizâm Âlî marched against him. The result was a complete victory to the Peshwâ, whose chief officers were Sivadasa Râo and Ibrahim Khân Ghardî, an able Musalmân in the Mahratta service. A treaty followed, by which Daulatâbâd, Asîrghar, Bijapûr, and the province of Aurungâbâd, were made over to the Mahrattas.

The Moguls were thus confined for the time within the narrowest limits.

Had the Mahrattas now possessed lofty and patriotic aims, they might have become the rulers of India.

The Tidings from the North-West.—The Peshwâ was encamped on the bank of the Manjêra, near Ūdghîr. He was triumphant; but he was to hear tidings there which would break his heart.

52. I. It is necessary to give a summary of the events which led to the FOURTH BATTLE OF PÂNIPAT (or the Second), before entering on an account of the battle itself (see p. 65).

(1.) **The events which lead to the Fourth Battle of Pânipat, 1761.**—Mûltân and Lâhôr had been conquered by Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî in 1748.

(2.) Mir Munu, who was made viceroy of these conquests by him, died in 1756, and left a widow. Great confusion ensued, and the Sikhs greatly increased.

(3.) Mir Shahâbodîn, Vazîr of Delhi (grandson of Nizâm-ul-Mulk, commonly called Ghâzi-ud-dîn iv.), invaded this province, claiming the daughter of Mir Munu, who had been betrothed to him; seized on the widow, carried her to Delhi, and appointed Adîna Beg governor.

(4.) This brought the Abdâlî across the Indus for the fourth time. He marched on Delhi, took it, plundered it, and also Muttra; and left it in 1756 (the year of the Black Hole), leaving Nazîb-ud-daula, a Rohilla chief, in charge of Âlamgîr II.

(5.) Mîr Shahâbodîn allied himself with Ragobâ, and by force recovered Delhi and the charge of the emperor's person. Like all Ragobâ's doings, this was foolish. The Abdâlî was not to be trifled with.

(6.) Ragobâ invaded Lâhôr, making a splendid but temporary conquest (May 1758). This was the cause of the war of the Mahrattas with Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî, and from this may be dated the beginning of the decline of the Mahratta power.

(7.) The Rohilla, Nazîb-ud-daula, and Shuja-ud-daula, Nuwâb of Oudh, took up arms in self-defence against the Mahrattas; and Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî crossed the Indus for the fifth time, to aid the confederates against the hated Hindû race. He was, however, as much an object of terror to the one party as to the other.

(8.) Mîr Shahâbodîn now put Âlamgîr II. to death, and set up Shâh Jehân, son of Kâm Baksh, as emperor.

(9.) Alî Gohar (Shâh Âlam II.) escaped, and became a tool in the hands of Shuja-ud-daula of Oudh. His history is intimately connected with that of the English under Clive.

(10.) Mîr Shahâbodîn, abandoning his puppet emperor, sought refuge with Surâj Mal, Râja of the Jâts. All waited the issue of the Abdâlî's resistless invasion.

(11.) The Mahrattas, under Malhar Râo Holkâr and Duttajî Sindia, retreated along the west bank of the Jamna, before Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî, and lost two-thirds of their number near Delhi. Here Duttajî and Jutîba were killed.

(12.) A further slaughter of Holkâr's troops by the Afghâns took place at Sikandra, near Delhi.

II. The Fourth battle of Pânîpat, 1761.—The battle itself: *the Flodden-field of the Mahrattas.*

Sivadasa Râo Bhão and Viswas Râo, son of the Peshwâ, now marched northward to recover the lost reputation of the Mahrattas, and to drive the Afghâns beyond the Attock. Ūdghîr had unduly elated them.

The struggle was to be final: it was to give, they said, all India to a Hindû power.

The leaders and allies.—Among those present were Mulhâr Râo Holkâr, Jankoji Sindia, Damaji Gaekwâr, Jeswant Râo Puar, and representatives of every Mahratta family of consequence. Surâj Mal, the Jât chieftain of Bhartpûr, was their principal ally.

In Delhi.—Without much difficulty the Mahrattas occupied Delhi, and the ambitious Sivadasha Râo proposed to place Viswas Râo, the eldest son of the Peshwâ, on the throne, and thus to assume the empire of Hindûstân. This was postponed, however, till the Afghâns should have been driven across the Indus.

From October 28 to January 6, 1761, continued skirmishes took place, but the Abdâlî, adopting a Fabian policy, steadily refused a general engagement. The improvident Mahrattas were without provisions or money, and were, in fact, closely besieged.

The battle.—On the 7th January, the whole Mahratta army, prepared to conquer or die, marched out to attack the Afghân camp. The Afghâns were physically stronger, and in this terrible struggle their powers of endurance at last prevailed against the fierce enthusiasm of the Mahrattas.

Viswas Râo was killed. In despair Sivadasha Râo descended from his elephant, mounted his horse, and charged into the thickest of the fight. He was seen no more. Jeswant Râo Puar also was killed.

Holkâr left the field early, with some imputation on his fidelity to his cause. Damaji Gaekwâr also escaped. Thousands perished in the flight, and the remainder were surrounded, taken prisoners, and cruelly beheaded the next morning. Among these were Jankoji Sindia and Ibrahim Khân Ghardi.

53. Death of Bâlâji B. Râo, 1761.—The Peshwâ never recovered the shock, and died at Pûna in June.

His character.—He was cunning, sensual, and indolent, but charitable and kindly, and his memory is respected by his countrymen.

The whole Mahratta race was thus thrown into mourning in 1761: their hope of supremacy in India had vanished, while every family bewailed its dead.

PART IV.—MAHRATTA HISTORY FROM THE FOURTH BATTLE OF PÂNIPAT TO THE END OF THE FIRST MAHRATTA WAR (1761-1782).

PÂNIPAT TO SALBÂI.

54. The Fourth Peshwâ, 1761-1772. Mâdu Râo.—The fourth Peshwâ was MÂDU RÂO, the second son of Bâlâjî Râo, the younger brother of the unfortunate Viswas Râo, who was appointed to the office by Râm Râja, the nominal sovereign, who was still in confinement in Satârâ.

Mâdu Râo succeeded at the age of seventeen, and died in 1772, at the early age of twenty-eight. He was the most heroic of the line. His uncle, Ragunâtha Râo (Ragobâ), was his guardian.

The Mogul opportunity wasted.—This was the time for the Moguls to avenge their defeat at Ūdghîr, and regain their ascendancy in the Dakhan, but they only succeeded in obtaining some cessions in Aurungâbâd and Berâr. There were, in fact, five Mahratta states, and no real union.

Dissensions prevailed during this period among the Mahratta leaders, and Ragobâ had to wage a civil war before he could gain his full authority as regent. He had also to fight with Nizâm Alî who was stirred up by Janojî Bhonslê of Berâr, who hoped to make himself supreme in the Mahratta confederacy. Ragobâ behaved with much courage and prudence, and, though Pûna was once sacked by Nizâm Alî, at length defeated the Moguls, and made an advantageous peace.

55. The four ablest Mahrattas.—At this time, and for many years after, Sakarâm Bappu and Nânâ Farnavis (a young man, just rising into importance) were the ablest Mahratta statesmen, while Trimback Râo Mamâ and Harî Pant Phâkre were the greatest soldiers in the service of the Pûna Government.

56. Haidar Ali, 1760.—There was now rising in the Carnatic, an enemy to the Mahrattas, who, imitating Sivaji, was laying the foundations of a kingdom. This was Haidar Ali (ch. xii.).

To oppose Haidar, in 1764, the young Peshwâ led an army across the Kishtna. The issue of the campaign was favourable to the Mahrattas, and Haidar was compelled to abandon all he had taken from the chiefs of that nation, and to pay thirty-two lakhs of rupees.

At this period, the nation which was eventually to crush the Mahrattas was rapidly gaining dominion in India. To the English there were three powers only that could offer any opposition. These were the Mahrattas, Nizâm Ali, and Haidar (ch. ix.).

While Mâdu Râo continued his inroads upon Haidar's dominions at intervals, the English were waiting for an opportunity of effecting the subjugation of both.

57. Indôr affairs. Mulhâr Râo Holkâr.—In 1766, Mulhâr Râo Holkâr died. For forty-two years he had been one of the bravest spirits among the Mahrattas.

Ahalyâ Bâi, 1766-1795.—He had only one son, Khandî Râo, who died in 1755, and his grandson, Mallî Râo, died soon after his grandfather. The widow of Khandî Râo, whose name was AHALYÂ BÂI, succeeded to the supreme authority in Indôr, and held it till her death in 1795. She was one of the most extraordinary women that ever lived. She adopted, by consent of the Peshwâ, an experienced soldier called Tûkaji Holkâr, who was no relation to the family. He assumed command of the army, and one of his descendants still rules in Indôr.

Tûkaji always paid to Ahalyâ Bâi filial reverence. She ruled, while he was commander-in-chief.

She was devout, merciful, and laborious to an extraordinary degree, and, by her wise administration raised Indôr from a village to a wealthy city. This princess was well educated, and possessed a remarkably acute mind. She became a widow when she was twenty years old, and her son died a raving maniac soon after. These things coloured her whole existence. She lived an ascetic life. In many things she was like the English Queen

Elizabeth; but in one far excelled her, she was insensible to flattery.

While living, she was 'one of the purest and most exemplary rulers that ever existed,' and she is now worshipped in Mâlwa as an incarnation of the Deity.

58. We return to Pûna. In 1769, while Haidar was dictating to the astonished Government of Madras the famous treaty, the Peshwâ, Mâdu Râo, was involved in difficulties, arising from the restless ambition of his uncle Ragobâ, and of Janojî, the Râja of Nâgpûr. His conduct towards his uncle was as wise and forbearing as that of the latter was treacherous and inconsistent. Mâdu yielded him all respect, but maintained his own authority. The Berâr Râja—never faithful to the Peshwâ, hating, as he did, Brâhman ascendancy—was ever ready to intrigue or fight against the Pûna Government. The Peshwâ succeeded, however, in bringing him to complete submission. Ragobâ himself was taken prisoner, and confined in Punâ, till released by Mâdu Râo just before his death (1772).

59. Sindia, the founder of the Gwâliôr State.—The affairs of the other great Mâlwa, or SINDIA, branch of the Mahrattas now demand attention. Rânoji was the founder of this family. His son Jayapa succeeded him, and was assassinated in 1759. Jankoji, the third of the line, was executed the day after the battle of Pânipat. An illegitimate son of Rânoji, by name MAHÂDAJÎ, became, in 1761, the head of the family. He had been wounded at the battle of Pânipat, and was lame ever after. We shall find him the chief rival of the Nânâ Farnavis, and virtually independent after the treaty of Salbâf.

60. Râm Sâstri.—Mahratta history is ennobled by the character of Râm Sâstri, who was Mâdu's tutor and spiritual guide. Profoundly learned, a pattern of integrity and of prudence, he reproved princes, awed the most dissolute, showed a bright example of industry, zeal, and benevolence, and is still revered by Mahrattas.

61. Mâdu Râo in the Carnatic, 1770.—The last great effort of Mâdu's life was his expedition into the Carnatic, to enforce

the payment of the tribute, which Haidar, relying on his treaty with the English, had dared to withhold.

The campaign of 1770 was unfavourable to Haidar, but Mâdu Râo was compelled by sickness to return to Pûna, and Trimbak Mamâ was left in command.

After a terrible defeat, upon the infliction of which the Mahrattas greatly prided themselves, the Mysôr army was shut up in Seringapatam. The siege was unsuccessful, but a peace, by which Haidar virtually yielded all demands, was made in April 1772.

62. The Mahrattas again in Hindûstân.—In 1769 the Mahrattas again crossed the Chambal, being the first time that they had ventured to show themselves in Hindûstân, in any force, since their terrible disaster in 1761.

They then levied tribute from the Râjpût states, and overran the districts occupied by the Jâts, and in the neighbourhood of Bhartpûr dictated an agreement, by which sixty-five lakhs of rupees were to be paid as tribute by the latter people.

63. The Mahrattas supreme in Delhi, 1770-1803.—And now began the series of transactions which put Shâh Âlâm II., the nominal Emperor of Delhi, into the absolute power of the Mahrattas, and made them, in fact, masters, for the time, of the empire (p. 67).

(1.) They overran Rohilkhand, 1771. This was the remote cause of the famous Rohilla war.

(2.) They again took possession of Delhi, under Mahâdaji Sindia, with a body of 30,000 men.

(3.) Having maintained a friendly intercourse with Shuja-ud-daula, Nuwâb of Oudh and nominal Vazîr of the empire, they took Shâh Âlâm II., who left British protection, and placed him on the throne in Delhi, December 1771. For this they received £100,000.

Visaji Kishen, Tûkajî Holkâr, and Mahâdaji Sindia, were the leaders.

64. The death of Mâdu Râo, 1772.—Mâdu Râo, who had long been sick, died of consumption on the 18th November

1772, in his twenty-eighth year. His early death was as great a calamity to the Mahrattas as the defeat at Pânipat. He was the *Black Prince* of the race; brave and prudent, bent on promoting the welfare of his people, firm in maintaining his own authority, and, with many difficulties to encounter, a successful ruler.

The Mahratta revenue at the period of his death may be calculated at £7,000,000 sterling. The army at the command of the Peshwâ, at this period, numbered not less than 100,000 magnificent horsemen, and a fair proportion of foot and artillery.

Disunion was the ruin of this apparently prosperous empire.

65. The Fifth Peshwâ, 1772-1773.—On the death of the Peshwâ, his younger brother, Nârâyana Râo, succeeded him, in his eighteenth year. His uncle, Ragobâ, now released, was his guardian. Sakarâm Bappu was prime minister, and Nânâ Farnavis one of the high officers of state.

The young Peshwâ himself was ambitious of military distinction.

Concord did not long prevail, and Ragobâ was again put under restraint in the palace of the Peshwâ. (1773, April.)

In August, Nârâyana Râo was murdered. A conspiracy, which Ragobâ favoured, had been formed to seize the young Peshwâ; but the murder seems to have been planned by Anandâ Bâi, the wicked wife of Ragobâ. When the assassins attacked the poor youth, he ran to his uncle's apartments, and begged him to defend him. This Ragobâ tried to do, but in vain.

66. Ragobâ nominal Peshwâ.—Ragobâ now assumed the dignity of Peshwâ (1773), and pushed on the war with the Nizâm and Haidar with vigour and good fortune.

67. Meanwhile in Hindûstân, the Emperor Shâh Âlam II., incited by Zabîta Khân, son of Nazîb Khân, strove to free himself from the Mahratta yoke, but was at last defeated in a battle at Delhi, in December 1772. This made the Mahrattas more than ever masters of the emperor.

68. Mâdu Râo Nârâyana, Sixth Peshwâ.—A revolution was

now pending at Pûna. A strong confederacy was formed against Ragobâ, of which Sakarâm Bâppu, Nânâ Farnavis, and Harî Pant Phâkre were the heads. A battle was fought, in which Ragobâ, with whom was Morârî, Râjâ of Gûti, was victorious, and Trimback Mamâ was killed; but Ragobâ's cause was ruined by the birth, in April 1774, of Nârâyana, Râo's posthumous son, Mâdu Râo Nârâyana, whom, rejecting Ragobâ's claims, we may call the SIXTH PESHWÂ.

69. Negotiations with the Bombay Government.—Ragobâ advanced to the banks of the Taptî, where he hoped to be joined by Sindia and Holkâr. There he entered into a negotiation with the Bombay Government, under Mr. Hornby (Governor from 1776 to 1784), promising to cede to the English Salsette, the smaller islands near Bombay, and Bassein, with its dependencies, as the price of their assistance.

70. Seventh Peshwâ.—While these negotiations were pending, Ragobâ's son, Bâjî Râo Ragunâth, was born at Dhâr, 1774. He in due time became the SEVENTH (AND LAST) OF THE PESHWÂS.

71. I. The Treaty of Sûrat, 1775.—The long-pending treaty between the Bombay Government and Ragobâ was signed March 6, 1775, at SÛRAT. The Bombay Government had already occupied Salsette, fearing that the Portuguese would re-conquer it.

72. First Mahratta War.—We have now to give a summary of the first war of the Mahrattas with the English, 1775-1782.

The Bombay Government at once sent Lieutenant-Colonel Keating, and a force of 1500 men to Sûrat, to conduct Ragobâ to Pûna, and instal him as Peshwâ.

By this time all the Mahratta chiefs, except Govind Râo (one of the Gujarât rivals), were in arms against Ragobâ and his English allies. Holkâr and Sindia had been detached from his cause by great efforts on the part of the Pûna regency.

The battle of Arras, May 15th, 1775.—Keating, after some fruitless negotiations, marched from the neighbourhood of

Cambay towards the banks of the Mât, and reached the plain of Arras, where he gained a complete, but dearly-bought victory. This was the first time the English had met the Mahrattas in a regular battle; and there Keating defeated a force which was ten times as large as his own.

An engagement took place also by sea, and Commodore Moor was successful. All things seemed favourable to Ragobâ, who made some further valuable cessions of territory to the Bombay Government.

Yet Ragobâ was unpopular with the whole Mahratta people, by whom his real character was duly estimated.

73. The Calcutta Government interferes.—The Supreme Government, with Warren Hastings at its head, assumed the administration of all the Company's affairs in India, according to the provisions of the Regulating Act, on 20th October 1774 (ch. x.).

II. The Treaty of Pûrandar, 1776.—They (or rather Hastings' opponents) pronounced the treaty with Ragobâ (the Sûrat treaty) to be 'impolitic, dangerous, unauthorised, and unjust'; and sent Colonel Upton to Pûna, who concluded the treaty of Pûrandar (near Pûna) with Sakarâm Bappu and Nânâ Farnavis on 1st March, 1776. Ragobâ was to be abandoned, but Salsette (after a fierce discussion) retained. Hastings, however, thought that the war should be carried on, as the Bombay Government had embarked in it.

Differences between the Bombay Government and the Supreme Government.—Mr. Hornby, then at the head of the Bombay Government, was a sincere and able man. He believed Ragobâ (who had, in fact, been pronounced guiltless by Râm Sâstri after careful investigation) to be innocent, and Mâdu Râo Nârâyana to be a supposititious child.

The Supreme Government seem to have been right in principle, but wrong in the peremptory and sudden manner in which they set at nought the acts and the opinions of their countrymen on the western coast.

74. Ragobâ at Sûrat.—The Bombay Government, accordingly, still clung to Ragobâ's cause, denounced the treaty of Pûrandar

as injurious to British interests, and received Ragobâ himself with two hundred followers into Sûrat, where he appealed to the Directors and to King George III.

The Court of Directors approved of the treaty of Sûrat, and encouraged the Bombay authorities to break through the treaty of Pûrandar; and, at last, the intrigues of the Pûna Government with the French compelled the Supreme Council to coincide with Bombay in espousing the cause of Ragobâ.

75. St. Lubin's Mission.—An adventurer called St. Lubin, a mere charlatan, had induced the French Government (according to his own statement) to send him to Pûna, to ascertain what might be gained by an alliance with the Mahrattas.

Nânâ Farnavis encouraged him. But the Pûna regency was itself distracted by party intrigues. Moraba Farnavis, a cousin of the Nânâ, and even Sakarâm Bappu, joined in a conspiracy to restore Ragobâ; and the Supreme Government at length united with the Bombay authorities in the resolution to bring him back to Pûna.

76. Troops sent overland from Calcutta by Warren Hastings.—Troops were now despatched by land from Calcutta, under Colonel Leslie; who, delayed on his march, was recalled, and died in October 1778.

Colonel Goddard, one of the great military heroes of British Indian history, then assumed command, and reached Sûrat on 6th February 1779.

His route lay through Bhîlsa, Bhôpâl, Hussangâbâd, and Burhânpûr to Sûrat.

He was treated by the Nuwâb of Bhôpâl with a kindness that laid the foundation of the amity which has ever since subsisted between that state and the British.

He entered by the way into some fruitless negotiations with Mûdajî, the protector of Berâr. The Nâgpur Râja aided him, however, with money and provisions.

A 'frantic military exploit.'—This wonderful land-march was projected by Hastings himself, and filled India with astonishment. In England it was termed 'a frantic military exploit'; but,

without some such heroic phrensies, the English would never have become paramount in India.

77. The Convention of Wargâom or Taligâom, 1779.—Meanwhile shame and disaster had befallen a portion of the Bombay army.

After many discussions and much intrigue, it was resolved at Bombay to send a force direct to Pûna, to place Ragobâ there as regent.

This army left Bombay November 22d, 1778, landed at Panalla, ascended the ghâts to Khandâla, December 23d, and on the 9th January reached Taligâom.

The expedition was under the command of Colonel Egerton, with whom were associated Messrs. Mostyn and Carnac. Mr. Mostyn (an able man, often employed in Mahratta affairs) died at the very outset.

Captain Stewart, an officer so brave that the Mahrattas called him 'Stewart Phâkro' (the hero Stewart), fell near Kârli.

At Taligâom the two gentlemen who were responsible came to the determination to retreat. Two thousand six hundred British troops were led back by their weak, sickly, and inexperienced commander and his civilian colleague. When within eighteen miles of Pûna, Colonel Cockburn took the command.

Of course their retreat was known at once. The army was pursued; and though Captain James Hartley especially distinguished himself, it was considered impossible to retreat further than Wargâom, and negotiations were commenced with Nânâ Farnavis.

There were two Mahratta authorities with whom Mr. Carnac could negotiate, Nânâ Farnavis and Mahâdâji Sindia, who were rivals, though both essential to the conduct of Mahratta affairs at the time. The latter, indeed, affected to be a mediator between Farnavis and his enemies.

With Sindia, to whom Ragobâ had given himself up, the 'convention' was at last concluded, Hartley protesting. He and the sepoys would have occupied Pûna with scarcely an effort, if they had been permitted.

Everything, according to this abortive and ill-omened 'con-

vention,' was to be restored to the position in which it was in 1773.

Broach was to be made over to Sindia, with 41,000 rupees in presents to his servants.

Two hostages, Mr. Farmer and Lieutenant Stewart, were given. Such was the miserable Convention of Wargâom, January 1779.

The Bombay Government, under Hornby, and the Court of Directors, disallowed the convention.

If Farnavis exultingly thought that the English would be overcome, as the Portuguese had been in 1739, he was soon undeceived.

78. Goddard's Negotiations.—Goddard had now reached Sûrat (having marched from Burhânpûr, a distance of three hundred miles, in twenty days), with instructions to negotiate a peace with Pûna, on the basis of the treaty of Pûrandar, with a provision for the exclusion of the French.

79. Haidar and the Mahrattas.—Haidar Ali was engaged in constant hostilities with the Mahrattas. In 1778 he paid a large sum as the price of the departure of Hari Pant Phâkre. More or less, at this period, he held all the Mahratta lands south of the Kishtna.

Gûti was taken 1776, after a siege of nine months, and Morâri Râo was taken prisoner. He died a captive.

80. Ragobâ had now joined Colonel Goddard as a fugitive. With him were Amrit Râo, his adopted son, and Bâji Râo (the last of the Peshwâs, born 1775). In the negotiations now entered into, Nânâ Farnavis demanded, as preliminary concessions, the surrender by the English of Ragobâ and of Salsette. As this was out of the question, active hostilities were commenced January 1, 1780. The forts of Dubhoy (*Dubhâi*, fifteen miles S.E. of Barôda), and the splendid city of Ahmadâbâd were taken by storm, and a treaty was made with Fatih Sing, by which the English acknowledged him as Gaekwâr of Barôda.

Sindia and Holkâr now joined their forces to oppose Goddard, who defeated and drove them off, but could then do no more.

Hartley defended the Konkan, where Kaliân was taken.

Captain William Popham, aided by Captain Bruce, was sent from Bengâl to attack Mâlwa and effect a diversion. He took Lahâr (a strongly fortified place, about fifty miles W. of Kalpi), and afterwards Gwâliôr, in the most heroic style by escalade. These were left in the hands of the Râna of Gôhud.

Soon after this he made peace with Hastings.

81. Combinations against the English.—In the meanwhile came Haidar's memorable invasion of the Carnatic, July 1780.

All the resources of Bengâl were required to aid Madras to meet this terrible attack. Bombay was left to itself.

The English were at this critical period engaged in two great wars. The strength of India, east and west, was arrayed against them. The Nizâm, the Mahrattas, and Haidar formed a triple anti-British alliance.

Warren Hastings was the saviour of British India at this period.

Hartley kept the Konkan with admirable skill and bravery, while Goddard took Bassein. (December 11, 1780.)

Goddard was eventually compelled to retreat (and it was his only failure in the war) by the combined forces of the Mahrattas, and no great advantages were afterwards gained by either party.

82. III. The Peace of Salbâi, 1782. (Near Gwâliôr, Sindia's camp).—The terms of a peace were arranged in January 1782, but the treaty was not concluded till the end of that year. Nânâ Farnavis delayed signing it till the 20th December, after he had received intelligence of Haidar's death, which happened December 7. It is called the treaty of SALBÂI. Mahâdajî Sindia, who now clearly saw that continued war with the English must be ruinous to himself, was the Peshwâ's plenipotentiary. Its chief provisions were the following:—

Conditions of peace.—(1.) Ragobâ was to have 25,000 rupees a month, and live where he choose. (He chose Kopergâom, on the Godâvarî, where he died in 1783. His son Bâjî Râo was then nine years old.)

(2.) All territory was to remain as before the treaty of Pûrandar.

(3.) All Europeans, except the English and Portuguese, were to be excluded from the Mahratta dominions.

(4.) Haidar (who died while the treaty was being negotiated) was to be compelled to relinquish his conquests from the English, and from the Nuwâb of Arcot, in the Carnatic.

(5.) Broach was given to Sindia, for his humanity to the English after the Convention of Wargâom.

This celebrated treaty marks an æra in Mahratta history.

PART V.—MAHRATTA HISTORY FROM THE TREATY OF SALBÂÎ TO THE TREATIES OF 1805.

83. Sindia aggrandises himself.—The effect of the treaty of Salbâî was greatly to favour Sindia's desire to form an independent Mahratta dominion. He no longer regarded himself as a feudatory of the Peshwâ. About this time he took possession of Gwâlîôr from the Râna of Gôhud, who had forfeited his claim to British protection, and then turned his attention to Delhi, where he obtained supreme authority, and was made by Shâh Âlam II. commander-in-chief of the imperial forces, and manager of the provinces of Delhi and Âgra.

Delhi was not freed from the Mahrattas till 1803.

Sindia, in 1785, was so elated by his position at Delhi, as to make a claim on the British Government for *Chouth* for their Bengâl provinces, but Mr. Macpherson, whose character Sindia doubtless wished to test, compelled him, by a most energetic and peremptory requisition, to disavow this claim.

84. The Mahrattas and Tippû.—From 1784 to 1787 the Mahrattas, in alliance with Nizâm Ali, were at war with Tippû.

Nânâ Farnavis made great attempts to induce the English to join them in a war against Mysôr, but in vain. While the treaty of Salbâî had bound the English and Mahrattas not to assist each other's enemies, the English were not prepared to assist in an offensive war against Tippû, to whom they were bound by the unfortunate treaty of Mangalôr. Lord Cornwallis,

in fact, announced it as the English rule, *to engage in none but defensive wars.*

Nothing remarkable was effected during this war, at the conclusion of which, Badâmi, Kittûr, and Nargund were ceded to the Mahrattas, and Tippû engaged to pay forty-five lakhs of rupees as tribute. The Tûmbhadra river was then fixed as the boundary of the Mysôrean's dominions.

85. Mahâdaji Sindia, 1785-1789.—From 1785 to 1789 the chief interest connected with Mahratta history is centred in Mahâdaji Sindia, who was vigorously prosecuting his schemes in Hindûstân. He was engaged in severe struggles (nominally on behalf of the emperor) with Pratâb Sing, the Râja of Jypûr, as well as with the Râja of Jôdhpûr, and many of the lesser Muhammadan Jaghîrdârs, from whom he tried to extort tribute.

86. Combination against Tippû, 1789.—Tippû did not long keep peace with the Mahrattas, and in the end of 1789 made an attack on the Travancore lines, which led to a declaration of war against him by Lord Cornwallis, and to a treaty between Nizâm Ali, Nânâ Farnavis, and the English, to humble the Mysôr state (1790).

The Mahratta contingent was commanded by Parêshram Bhão. It was dilatory in its movements. Another army under Harî Pant Phâkre was also sent. The Mahrattas did little else than plunder and attend to their own interests, yet Lord Cornwallis, according to the terms of the treaty, made over to them (in February 1792), on the successful conclusion of the war, a share of Tippû's dominions, lying between the S. Warda and Kishtna.

87. Sindia in Pâna.—Mahâdaji Sindia continued supreme at the Mogul court: the mayor of the palace. In 1790 he had procured for the Peshwâ from Shâh Â'îm II., for the third time, the title of Vakil-i-Mutlâq, or chief minister. Sindia and his heirs were to be perpetual deputies of the Peshwâ in this office, which was now made hereditary. Thus skilfully was his ambition veiled.

To convey the patents and insignia of this office to the Peshwâ,

Sindia now marched to Pûna. His arrival filled Nânâ Farnavis with apprehension. The ceremony of investing the Peshwâ, Mâdu Râo Nârâyana, who was in his eighteenth year, with the insignia of office, was most splendid. Much was made, too, of an order issued by the emperor, in deference to the Mahrattas, forbidding the slaughter of cows in Hindûstân. Sindia's one object was to make himself supreme at Pûna, but he affected extreme humility, carried a pair of slippers as a memento of his hereditary office, and would receive no title but that of Pâtêl, or village head-man.

It was now a game of skill between the Nânâ and Sindia: Brâhman against Sûdra.

88. War between Sindia and Holkâr, 1792.—Meanwhile in Hindûstân the jealousy between Holkâr and Sindia led to a battle between the former and Sindia's generals. This bloody battle was fought at Lakairi, near Âjmir. Holkâr's army was utterly routed, and retreated to Mâlhwâ. In his retreat Holkâr took and burnt Ūjein.

Death of Mahâdaji Sindia, 1794.—Sindia, thus powerful everywhere, would probably have succeeded in overthrowing the Brâhman influence altogether, had he not died suddenly at Wanaoli, near Pûna, 12th February 1794.

Daulat Râo Sindia, 1794-1827.—He was succeeded by his grand-nephew, Daulat Râo Sindia, then in his fifteenth year. This latter chief was not really a Mahratta in feeling, but always regarded himself as the principal sovereign of India.

89. Disunion and Decay, 1794.—Nânâ Farnavis was now the only Mahratta statesman. The Mahratta confederacy still maintained the nominal supremacy of the Peshwâ, but the people were losing their adventurous spirit, and each chieftain was gradually becoming independent of any central authority.

The disputes between Nizâm Ali and the Nânâ, regarding arrears of tribute, grew more and more complicated. Sir John Shore (timidly refusing to perform the duties to which the English were pledged by the treaty of 1790) would not interfere. The Nizâm was left to his fate. War was begun in December

1794, but the English ministers at both courts were compelled to remain passive, though impatient, spectators of the struggle.

Under the Peshwâ's banner, *for the last time*, came all the great Mahratta chiefs. Daulat Râo Sindia, Tûkajî Holkâr, Raghujî Bhonslê from Nâgpur, Govind Râo from Barôda, and all the lesser chieftains were there.

The battle of Kûrdla, 1795.—At Kûrdlâ (March 1795), a victory was obtained by the Mahrattas, more the result of a panic among the Moguls than of Mahratta bravery. But Nizâm Ali was obliged to treat. An obnoxious minister, Mashîr-ul-Mulk, who had resisted the Mahratta claims, was surrendered. Raymond, a Frenchman, was in command of the Haidarâbâd troops, while Perron was with Sindia's contingent.

Large territorial concessions were then made to the Mahrattas, including Daulatâbâd.

90. Nânâ Farnavis and Ragoba's Sons.—The Nânâ was now in the zenith of his power and influence, but he lost his popularity by his treatment of Ragobâ's sons, whom he imprisoned in Sewnerî. Of these Bâjî Râo was the eldest, and most accomplished, winning in his manners, and a general favourite.

The suicide of Mâdu Râo Nârâyana, the Sixth Peshwâ. Oct. 22, 1795.—The Nânâ forcibly prevented all intercourse between the Peshwâ and his cousin, and this so irritated the young prince that he threw himself from a terrace of his palace, and died in two days.

91. Bâjî Râo II., the seventh and last Peshwâ.—Bâjî Râo II. succeeded him. But the Nânâ at first proposed that the late Peshwâ's widow should adopt a son, who should be placed on the throne.

After endless intrigues, Daulat Râo Sindia and the Nânâ united in the elevation of Bâjî Râo, and in December 1796 he was placed on the Musnud, with Farnavis once more prime minister. The Nânâ no doubt aimed at gradually setting aside the Peshwâ, as the Peshwâs had superseded the Râjas. He made himself *hereditary Diwân*. But he had no son to take his place.

BÂJÎ RÂO II., though of most prepossessing manners and appearance, was a worthless man, fitted to bring to ruin, as he did, the state which had the misfortune to receive him for its ruler.

His first endeavour was to rid himself of Daulat Râo Sindia, and of the Nânâ. The former was continually in Pûna, where he overruled the young Peshwâ, who determined at any cost to send him back to Hindûstân. But first the ruin of the Nânâ must be effected. It was determined, with the aid of Sindia, to seize him. Pûna for a day and a night was a scene of bloodshed and confusion: The Nânâ was sent a prisoner to Ahmadnagar, while Shîrzî Râo Ghâtgê, father-in-law of Sindia, was made minister, and was allowed to plunder, torture, and kill the inhabitants of Pûna at his pleasure. He was an execrable monster. The Peshwâ was also assisted, in his attempts to free himself, by his adopted brother, Amrit Râo.

Sindia himself now wished to return to Hindûstân, but could not find funds to pay his troops, and several battles, resulting from domestic quarrels, took place. The Nânâ was liberated, at the earnest request of Bâjî Râo, who even paid him a mid-night visit in disguise, threw himself before the old statesman, and swore that he had never consented to his seizure. The Nânâ again became chief minister.

92. Lord Mornington (Marquess of Wellesley) was now Governor-General. With him Nizâm Âli concluded a treaty, by which he dismissed his French soldiers, received six British battalions, and, in fact, came under the famous *subsidiary system*.

Now came the final war of the English with Tippû. The Peshwâ, who had promised to help the English against Tippû, was secretly laying his plans to aid him, when the sudden intelligence arrived of the capture of Seringapatam, and the death of the Tiger of Mysôr (ch. xii.).

Britain had no rival now in India, except the Mahrattas.

98. Tûkaji Holkâr, and his successor, Jeswant Râo Holkâr. —Tûkaji Holkâr died in 1795. He left four sons. The eldest was imbecile. The second was Mulhâr Râo, who was killed this

year in a fray at Pûna, and the third, who was illegitimate, was called JESWANT RÂO. He eventually succeeded to the government. Meanwhile he became a great freebooter, and a formidable rival to Sindia. Bhîls, Pindâris, Mahrattas, and Afghâns now flocked to Indôr, like ill-omened birds of prey. He had soon an army of 70,000 men. It will require the Pindâri war of 1818 to give quiet to these districts.

94. Mahratta affairs in 1799.—The eighteenth century closed with universal confusion in Mahratta affairs. Civil war, in which the Râja at Satârâ, the Kolhâpûr chief, Sindia, and the Peshwâ's own officers were engaged, raged throughout the whole country.

Death of Nânâ Farnavis, 1800.—The death of Nânâ Farnavis, which happened in March 1800, sealed the ruin of the Peshwâ's Government.

He was an astute statesman, though personally timid, on the whole, a patriot. He firmly opposed the introduction of the SUBSIDIARY SYSTEM into Pûna, respected and admired the English, but politically regarded them ever with fear and aversion.

95. Daulat Râo Sindia and Jeswant Râo Holkâr.—In the end of 1800, Sindia returned to Mâlhwâ, where several bloody battles were fought between him and Jeswant Râo Holkâr.

The infamous Ghâtgê joined his father-in-law, Sindia's army, and under his command the troops gained a complete victory over Holkâr, and the result was the pillage of Indôr, in revenge for that of Ūjein.

Ahalyâ Bâi's sacred city was laid waste.

Jeswant Râo was now nearly ruined. Sindia's and the Peshwâ's troops gained several great advantages over him, but he, by a skilful march, arrived unexpectedly in the neighbourhood of Pûna, and there gained a decisive victory, October 25, 1801.

The Peshwâ under British protection, 1801.—This battle had the most momentous results. The Peshwâ fled to Singhur, and immediately offered to Colonel Barry Close, the British resident,

an engagement to subsidise six battalions of sepoys, and to pay twenty-five lakhs of rupees annually for their support. He eventually passed over to *Bassein*, and put himself under British protection. The entanglement of affairs was very strange, and it is evident that the ruin of the Mahrattas was inevitable.

The real Râja of the Mahrattas was in *Salârâ*, a mere puppet. His chief minister and real sovereign, Bâji Râo II., the seventh Peshwâ, was driven from his capital by his feudatory, Holkâr, with whom another feudatory, Sindia, was at war. The British had to mediate. THE MAHRATTA CONFEDERATION WAS AT AN END. This was 122 years after the death of the founder, the great Sivaji (1680-1802).

96. Ahmadâbâd or Barôda affairs.—Meanwhile at Barôda (which had now become the capital of the Gackwâr's dominions, instead of Ahmadâbâd), on the death of Govind Râo, disputes about the succession compelled the English to interfere. They took the part of Râoji Appâji, as minister of the heir, Atand Rao, who was of weak intellect.

Barôda was taken, a subsidiary force received, and the state came under the SUBSIDIARY SYSTEM, January 1803. This was ratified by the Peshwâ in the treaty of *Bassein*.

Major Walker, a distinguished administrator, became the first resident. Infanticide was abolished, and good order introduced through his wisdom, energy, and benevolence.

Sûrat.—*Sûrat* was finally taken possession of by Governor Duncan in 1799.

97. The Treaty of Bassein, 1802.—To return, Holkâr soon began to plunder Pûna, and set up a new Peshwâ, a son of Amrit Râo. This hastened the signing of THE TREATY OF BASSEIN, 31st December 1802.

The conditions.—This celebrated treaty disunited for ever the Mahrattas, and gave the English complete authority over them. By it the Peshwâ engaged (1.) to admit a subsidiary force, and to pay twenty-six lakhs for its maintenance annually; (2.) to receive no European of any nation hostile to the English into his dominions; (3.) to give up all claims to Sûrat, and to leave

his disputes with the Nizâm and the Gaekwâr to British mediation; and (4.) to remain the faithful ally of England.

Full protection to him and to his territories was in return guaranteed by the British.

98. The war caused by the Treaty of Bassein.—We are now approaching the history of the second war of the Mahrattas with the English. (A.D. 1803-1804.) Daulat Râo Sindia and Raghujî Bhonslê were both opposed to the treaty of Bassein, as was natural, and prepared for war. Sooner or later an English war with these chieftains was inevitable.

General Wellesley had to reinstate the Peshwâ in Pûna, of which Jeswant Râo Holkâr was in possession, Sindia being at Burhânpûr with an army. Raghujî in Berâr was preparing for war.

Wellesley's and Stevenson's armies.—Two armies were now marched, by the command of the Governor-General. One under his illustrious brother, Major-General Arthur Wellesley, assembled on the northern frontier of Mysôr, and the other, under General Stevenson, consisting of the Haidarâbâd subsidiary force, was encamped at Purinda, on the eastern border of the Peshwâ's territory.

General Wellesley reached Pûna by forced marches, on the 20th of April. The future duke had always maintained that India would never know peace till the English were supreme in Pûna.

The Peshwâ was reinstated in May. Holkâr then retreated to Mâlhwâ, and Stevenson advanced to the Godâvarî to protect the country.

The two chieftains, Daulat Râo Sindia and Raghujî Bhonslê, still pretended to be well inclined to the British, but demurred to the treaty of Bassein. General Wellesley, to whom the whole authority, political as well as military, had been intrusted, simply required that Sindia should withdraw to Mâlhwâ, and Raghujî Bhonslê to Berâr, when he would remove the British troops.

This they refused to do, and the SECOND MAHRATTA WAR began.

99. Preparations for the second Mahratta war.—The Marquess

Wellesley at once determined to attack the confederates at every point. He acted as his own Minister of War. The British troops were stationed in the following places :—

(1.) GENERAL WELLESLEY had 8930 men, and was encamped near Ahmâdnagar.

(2.) General Stevenson had 7920 men, on the banks of the Godâvari.

(3.) General Stewart, with a covering army, was stationed between the Kishtna and Tûngabadra.

(4.) In Gujarât there were 7352 men, under General Murray, holding the various forts, of whom 5000 were ready for field service.

(5.) In Hindûstân GENERAL LAKE had 10,500 men.

(6.) At Allâhâbâd 3500 men were ready, under Colonel Powell, to act on Bandêlkhand.

(7.) Under Colonel Harcourt, 5216 men were prepared to march on Kuttack, the extreme eastern point of Raghujî Bhonslê's dominions.

A glance at the map will show how completely the Mahratta powers were thus within the meshes of a mighty net. The whole was arranged by the two wonderful brothers, the Marquess and the future Duke.

To oppose these were Daulat Râo Sindia's troops and those of Raghujî Bhonslê, consisting of 50,000 horse and 30,000 infantry, commanded by Europeans, numerous and well-served artillery, and a great multitude of irregular troops, but the leaders themselves possessed neither courage nor military skill.

Sindia's troops, and, in fact, all his dominions in Hindûstân, were under M. Perron, who had succeeded the veteran De Boigne. Sindia himself had remained near Pûna from the date of his accession.

Jeswant Râo Holkâr was in Mâlwa plundering, and striving to maintain an appearance of neutrality. He rejoiced at the prospect of the humiliation of his rival Sindia, though he himself hated and feared the British.

The Mahratta dominion now extended from Delhi to the Cāvêri, and from the mouth of the Mahânadî to the Gulf of Cambay, over a population of 40,000,000.

Their whole armies numbered 210,000 infantry and 100,000 cavalry.

100. Ahmadnagar taken.—The first great blow, promptly delivered, was the capture of *Ahmadnagar*, Sindia's great arsenal, August 12, 1803.

Stevenson took Jâlna, September 9.

101. Assaî, 1803, September 23.—The second great blow was the British VICTORY OF ASSAÎ. The whole Mahratta army was now strongly encamped near the villages of Bokerdûn and Jaffirâbâd. It consisted of 10,000 regular infantry, 100 well-equipped guns, and 40,000 horse.

On 23rd September, Wellesley learned that the confederates were encamped on the Kailnâ, near its confluence with the Juah, both these streams being tributaries of the Southern Pârna, which is a main affluent of the Godâvarî. Not far from the fork of the two first rivers is the fortified village of Assaî. He resolved to attack them at once.

On the advance of the British troops, the Mahrattas began a terrible cannonade. The 74th Regiment, the 19th Light Dragoons, and the 4th Madras Cavalry, nobly contested the field. Three hundred and sixty men formed the entire 19th, but they and the 4th Madras Cavalry, led by Colonel Maxwell, charged the whole Mahratta army, in which were eight of De Boigne's trained battalions.

The enemy's line gave way, driven with great slaughter into the Juah at the point of the bayonet by the advancing line of British infantry, and the battle was won, but *one-third of the British troops lay dead upon the field.*

Daulat Râo Sindia and Raghuji Bhonslê fled from the field early in the day, almost at the first shot.

Stevenson joined Wellesley on the evening of the 24th.

102. The next undertakings were the reduction of the city of Burhânpûr, and of the fort of Asîrghar. These were accomplished (October 21) by Colonel Stevenson.

Sindia had now nothing left in the Dakhan.

103. The campaign in Gujarât.—In Gujarât, the city of Broach, Sindia's only seaport, the fort of Pâwargarh and the town of Champanîr were taken (September 17).

104. Lake's victories, 1803 (Cawnpoor).—In Hindûstân, General Lake, with the same powers that Wellesley possessed in the Dakhan, marched from Khânpûr against Sindia's army which was under Perron.

(1.) He first took Coel and the adjacent fort of Alighar, August 29. Alighar had always been regarded as impregnable. The 78th Highlanders took it, with wonderful gallantry, by storm. Two hundred and eighty-one guns were captured in it.

(2.) At this time Perron and his staff, who had long been objects of jealousy to the Mahratta officers, retired from Sindia's service. M. Louis Bourquin succeeded Perron.

(3.) **Battle of Delhi.**—This latter met the English under the walls of Delhi, and was defeated in a battle skilfully fought by Lake, September 11. Sikhs were in the army that opposed Lake on that occasion.

(4.) Delhi surrendered. The person and family of Shâh Âlam II. thus came into Lord Lake's hands. So did Britain's power extend in less than fifty years after the battle of Plassey.

(5.) Bourquin and the other French officers surrendered.

(6.) **Âgra taken.**—Âgra was besieged and taken, October 18. Immense treasure was found there, and promptly distributed among the army.

(7.) **The Battle of Lâswari, November 1, 1803.**—Lake now set out in pursuit of another wing of Sindia's army (the 'Dakhan Invincibles'), which retired before him to the hills of Mêwât. He overtook it (November 1), near Lâswari, and a most severely contested battle was fought. The veterans trained by De Boigne died heroically in the field. The victory was, however, complete; and it laid all Sindia's dominions in Hindûstân, from Delhi and Âgra to the Chambal, at Lake's feet.

Thus was this formidable French-Mahratta power for ever broken; at the time that the Mahrattas were undoubtedly the 'foremost' people in India.

105. Kuttack.—Colonel Harcourt was sent against Kuttack,

which he took (October 10). By the 14th of October, the whole district of Kuttack was conquered. The priests of Juggernath hastened to put themselves and their temple under the protection of the British General. The conquest of Orissa seems to have cost £30,000 sterling and fifty men.

Colonel Powell cleared Bandêlkhand. (From September 16 to October 13.)

106. Argâom.—In the Dakhan, negotiations for peace were entered into by the Mahratta chiefs, but in a vacillating and deceitful manner.

Wellesley, following up the Nâgpur army, now attacked the confederates at Argâom, and gained a complete victory.

Gâwilgarh.—Gâwilgarh, a celebrated stronghold of the Râja of Berâr, was taken December 15, by Colonel Stevenson. This strong fortress is on a high hill between the sources of the Tapti and the Northern Pârna rivers.

107. Treaty with the Râja of Nâgpur. The peace of Dêogâom. The Fifth Mahratta Treaty.—On 17th December, Raghuji Bhonslê, utterly discomfited, signed a treaty, by which—

- (1.) He ceded Kuttack and Balasôr ;
- (2.) He gave up all his territory west of the N. Warda (the great cotton-fields), and south of the range of hills on which Gâwilgarh stands ;
- (3.) He agreed to submit to British arbitration all disputes between himself, the Nizâm, and the Peshwâ ; and
- (4.) He engaged to admit no foreigners hostile to Great Britain into his service.

Mountstuart Elphinstone.—This is called the TREATY OF DÊOGÂOM. The Honourable Mountstuart Elphinstone (one of the most celebrated of British-Indian statesmen, who afterwards twice declined the office of Governor-General) was the first resident at the Nâgpur court.

108. The Treaty of Sirji Anjengâom.—Very reluctantly, on the 30th December 1803, did Daulat Râo Sindia also sign a treaty, by which he ceded to the English all his territory between

the Jamna and the Ganges; all north of Jeypûr, Jôdhpûr, and Gôhud; the forts of Ahmadnagar and Broach and their districts; all between the Ajunta Ghâts and the Godâvari.

Major (Sir) John Malcolm was the first resident at Sindia's court. This is called the TREATY OF SIRJÎ ANJENGÂOM.

Sindia, in February 1804, agreed to come completely under Lord Wellesley's subsidiary system. The treaty was signed at Burhânpûr.

109. Other Minor Treaties.—Treaties were also made with the Râjput chiefs of Jeypûr, Jôdhpûr, Bândî, and Machêri; the Jât Râja of Bhartpûr, the Râna of Gôhud, and Ambaji Ingliâ, who had obtained a portion of the Gôhud territory.

Most of the Râjput chiefs had been subdued by Holkâr and Sindia, and had suffered greatly.

Thus ended the Second Mahratta War.

110. War with Jeswant Râo Holkâr.—The British had now (1804) three armies in the field: one at Jaffîrâbâd; one at Pûna; one, under Lord Lake, in Hindûstân.

The two former were preserving peace in the newly assigned districts; and the last was watching Jeswant Râo Holkâr, who was ravaging Hindûstân, and had taken into his pay the disbanded soldiers of Sindia and the Râja of Berâr.

This chieftain, after many negotiations, proceeded to plunder Âjmr, and to threaten the Râjpûts under British protection. He demanded also cessions of territory, and it became evident that war with him was inevitable. An army of 80,000 men attended him in his forays. It was necessary that this predatory horde should be scattered.

111. This supplementary war began in April 1804, and lasted till December 1805. Holkâr was the declared antagonist; but Sindia also was involved in it. It was ended by an unsatisfactory and hollow peace.

The Third Mahratta War, 1804, 1805.—It may be called the Third Mahratta War. We shall give a summary only of the events connected with it.

(1.) The fort of Tonk Râmpûra was stormed, May 16. Indôr was taken by Colonel Murray, August 24.

(2.) Colonel Monson was driven from the Mokhundra Pass to Delhi, losing his guns and baggage, and many of his troops, July 8-August 31. This almost rivals the convention of Wâr-gâom, or the defeat of Baillie. The disgrace was soon wiped off.

(3.) This emboldened Holkâr to attack Delhi; but he was nobly repulsed by Colonel Ochterlony, the resident, October 8-14.

(4.) General Frazer and Colonel Monson gained a complete victory at Dig. General Frazer fell, November 13. Colonel Monson took eighty-seven guns, among which were fourteen that he had lost.

(5.) General Lake fell upon Holkâr's troops at Fatighar, and cut them up, November 17.

(6.) Lake besieged Dig, which was stormed, December 23. Sir C. Metcalfe, then a young civilian, was present as a volunteer at this siege.

(7.) Thus all Holkâr's forts, Chanda, Galua, and his capital, Indôr had been captured. He had, in fact, lost all he possessed in Mâl-wâ, as well as in the Dakhan.

(8.) Dig and Bhartpûr belonged to the Jât Râja, who had behaved treacherously to his allies the British, having aided and encouraged Holkâr.

(9.) Bhartpûr was now rashly and inconsiderately besieged (January 2, 1805.) It is a fortified town, six or eight miles in circumference, surrounded by a very lofty mud wall, and was regarded as impregnable by the Hindûs. The Râja was resolute in his defence, and Lord Lake was not prepared for such a siege. Four assaults failed.

Meanwhile Holkâr and his friends were surprised and cut up on every side by General Lake and his active officers.

On the 16th April, the Bhartpûr Râja came to terms; and, though the city had not been taken, paid twenty lakhs of rupees, and renounced Holkâr's alliance.

This was certainly a gain; but the ill-success of the siege left a bad impression, which was not removed till Lord Combermere took the city in January 1826.

(10.) Daulat Râo Sindia broke faith after the death of his

great minister, Wittal Pant; seized Mr. Jenkins, the assistant resident; and with his father-in-law, the infamous Ghâtgê, and Ambajî Ingliã, espoused, though not quite openly, Holkâr's cause; being annoyed, and justly so, at the denial to him of Gwâliôr and Gôhud.

(11.) Now came the second appointment of Lord Cornwallis, July 30, 1805. His mission was to restore peace at any sacrifice. Lord Lake unwillingly conducted the negotiations, which were to make his victories vain.

(12.) A new treaty was made with Sindia, on the basis of that of Sirjî Anjengâom. Gôhud and Gwâliôr were taken from the Râna of Gôhud, who was unfit for government, and made over to Sindia.

Thus Sindia was conciliated. The magnificent fortress of Gwâliôr has ever since belonged to the Sindia family.

Jeswant Râo Holkâr was driven by Lord Lake into the Panjâb, where he obtained no assistance from the Sikhs. He sued for peace, and, fortunately for him, Sir G. Barlow's policy permitted him to obtain it on ludicrously easy terms. (November 1805.)

One thing is to be especially deplored here. The Râja of Bûndî, and other Râjpût chieftains, who had been faithful allies of the English, were left, unprotected, to 'the moderation and good faith,' that is, to the vengeance, of Holkâr and Sindia. This Lord Lake earnestly deprecated, but in vain. Metcalfe, too, remonstrated in emphatic language.

Of course, troubles must again arise with these Mahratta chiefs. Mehîdpûr, and the events of 1818, will be required to bring these affairs to a satisfactory termination.

112. The Treaty of Barôda.—The treaty of Barôda, April 1805, finally brought the Gaekwâr under the subsidiary system. This treaty was precisely similar to that of Bassein.

PART VI.—EVENTS SUBSEQUENT TO 1805. THE DECADENCE OF THE MAHRATTA STATES.

113. The causes of the Decline and Fall of the Mahrattas.—We are now approaching the last period of Mahratta history.

(1.) The excessive aggrandisement of Mahādaji Sindia, making him independent of the Peshwā; and, in fact, a rival to him. His example was not lost on the other Mahratta chieftains.

(2.) The dissensions consequent on the death of Nārāyaṇa Rāo, with the quarrels and rivalries of Ragobā, Nānā Farnavis, Bāji Rāo II., Jeswant Rāo Holkār, and Daulat Rāo Sindia, completely disintegrated the confederation.

(3.) Moreover, the confederation had within itself elements of disunion, and consequent weakness. The Peshwā and his councillors were Brāhmans; Sindia and Holkār were Sûdras; Raghuji Bhonslê was a Kshetriya.

(4.) Shâh Âlam II. was now in the power of the British. Under the shadow of the new paramount power, the corruption and disorder which favoured the rise of the Mahrattas could not exist.

114. Death of Jeswant Rāo Holkār.—Jeswant Rāo Holkār, after committing many atrocities, went mad in 1808, and died so in 1811. His state was now in a condition of extreme disorder. It was administered by Tulsî Bâi, a concubine of Jeswant Rāo Holkār, in the name of Mulhār Rāo Holkār, an illegitimate son of that chief. The army had become totally unmanageable.

115. Sindia in Gwāliôr.—In 1810, Daulat Rāo Sindia made Gwāliôr his headquarters. His father-in-law, Ghâtgê, died that year, having been killed while resisting an order for his arrest. The influence of this ruffian on Daulat Rāo Sindia was most pernicious. He was a determined enemy of the British power.

116. Amîr Khân.—The name of *Amîr Khân*, 'a vulgar and ferocious copy of Holkār,' appears frequently in the history of this period. He was an Afghân adventurer, who aided Jeswant Rāo Holkār in his early struggles (1800), became his greatest general, took the control of affairs during his insanity, and was bent on establishing himself in Râjpûtâna (1809).

A great contest arose among the Râjpût princes for the hand of *Krishna Kumâri*, the beautiful daughter of the Râna of Oudipûr.

In the course of this Mân Sing of Jôdhpûr sustained a terrible defeat. Amîr Khân fomented these quarrels; and even induced the Râna of Oudipûr to murder his daughter, on whose account these quarrels had arisen.

With Amîr Khân there were many contests.

117. Bâji Râo II.—We return to Pûna. From 1803 to 1810, Colonel Sir Barry Close was Resident there. Bâji Râo was full of hatred to the English, while sensible of the strength which their troops gave him. He professed the utmost cordiality, but intrigued with Sindia; and his great delight was to humble and oppress the families that had been opposed to his party. He had never ceased to regret the treaty of Bassein. He was not destitute of ability; but was intriguing, superstitious, and avaricious.

118. Elphinstone in Pûna.—In 1811, the Honourable Mountstuart Elphinstone, who had been on General Wellesley's staff in 1803, and who had recently returned from his celebrated mission to Kâbul, was appointed Resident at the Peshwâ's court. He knew the people and the work, and had much direct personal intercourse with the natives.

119. Trimbakji Dainglia.—We are now introduced (1813) to the man whose connection with the Peshwâ consummated the ruin of the Mahrattas. *Trimbakji Dainglia* was a spy, and had risen, by every infamous compliance, to the position of chief favourite of Bâji Râo, who found in him a kindred spirit. This man hated Europeans, and laboured with success to impress his master with the idea that he could restore the Mahratta power to the state in which it was under the first great Peshwâs. His cruelty and violence in the exercise of the office of prime-minister, which he soon attained, were unbounded; and the government was exceedingly corrupt and oppressive.

His plans.—Bâji Râo was induced by this wretched man to open communications with Sindia, Holkâr, and Raghuji Bhonslê, and his design was to restore the Mahratta confederacy.

Disputes between Bâji Râo II. and the Gaekwâr.—The

province of Gujarât was then much under British influence. The Resident was Colonel Walker, and his measures delivered it from anarchy. There were disputes between Bâji Râo and the Gaekwâr's Government, regarding debts due to the Pûna Court, and Gangâdhar Sâstrî was sent to discuss the matter. The Sâstrî, a Brâhman, was assassinated by Trimbakjî's agents, with Bâji Râo's concurrence, at the sacred shrine of Panderpûr. This outrage filled every mind with horror. Mr Elphinstone required the punishment of the assassin, and Trimbakjî was confined in the fort of Tanna, on the island of Salsette. Trimbakjî was now supplied secretly with money by the Peshwâ, and proceeded to raise troops and to organise an insurrection with the design of driving the British from the country.

Mr. Elphinstone's efforts in Pûna.—Mr. Elphinstone with the utmost forbearance, prudence, and firmness, tried to bring Bâji Râo to a better mind, and to induce him to retrace his steps. It was, however, necessary, at last, to assume a most decided tone. A new treaty was prepared circumscribing his power, and Bâji was compelled to sign it (1817). Ahmadnagar was ceded to the English, and Trimbakjî was to be given up, but he managed to elude his pursuers.

120. The Marquess of Hastings.—The Marquess of Hastings (Earl Moira) had succeeded (October 1813), and it became evident that the Patâns, under Amîr Khân, and the Pindâris must be put down.

The Pindâris. The *Pindâris* were a collection of the lowest freebooters, the very refuse of all the lawless, predatory hordes that infested the Dakhan. They had followed, like obscene beasts of prey, the armies of the early Mahratta chieftains, by whom assignments of land had been made to them along the banks of the Narbaddah.

Mulhâr Râo Holkâr had given them a golden flag.

Their first conspicuous leader was *Kharîm Khân* (a Rohilla by birth), who had been imprisoned by Sindia in Gwâliôr, and was not released till 1810. Another was *Chitu* (by birth a Jât), who was kept in confinement by Amîr Khân till 1816, and who was their ablest chief.

When the Mahratta chieftains ceased to be engaged in endless wars, these Pindâ lost their occupation, as jackals attending those expeditions. They now began plundering on their own account, and gradually increased the field of their operations, and the daring of their exploits. Their army in 1812 did not fall short of 60,000 horsemen.

121. The beginning of the war in Nipâl (1814) was unfavourable to the English. This encouraged the Mahrattas to contemplate the renewal of their confederacy. They therefore secretly abetted the Pindâris and Patâns in their excesses, though the time had not come for any open hostilities on their part.

122. **Arrangements for the Pindari war, October 16, 1817.**—Now came on what we may call the FOURTH MAHRATTA WAR. It really lasted from October 1817 to February 18, 1818, though all the forts were not taken till April 1819.

The chief battles were :—

- (a.) Kirki, November 5, 1817.
- (b.) Nâgpûr, November 26, 1817.
- (c.) Mehîdpûr, December 21, 1817.
- (d.) Korigâom, January 1, 1818.
- (e.) Ashta, February 19, 1818.

The Marquess of Hastings, in 1817, resolved to put down finally, not only the Pindâris, but all the predatory powers of Central India. This was required by humanity, not less than by policy. The Nizâm's dominions, and the Northern Sirkârs, were invaded and pillaged by the Pindâris, who had thus thrown down the gauntlet, and the Governor-General was bound to take it up.

The treaties of 1805 had been virtually annulled by the intrigues of Sindia and Holkâr, and by their constant violation of them.

The Governor-General's plan was to surround the infested districts with troops, and thus to hem in and destroy the ravagers and their allies. Lord Hastings himself left Calcutta early in July, 1817, for the scene of conflict.

Five divisions of troops were in the field under Sir Thomas

Hislop. One division was stationed in Gujarât. Four divisions, under the personal command of the Marquess himself, marched from Bengâl, and a reserve force was posted at Adwânî. Contingents were left at Pûna, Haiderâbâd, and Nâgpûr.

Sir Thomas Hislop was to advance into Mâlhwâ, crossing the Narbaddah at *Hindia*. A force from Nâgpûr was to advance by Hoshungâbâd. The others were stationed in Berar, and in Kândêsh, at Rewâri, Âgra, Sikandra, and Kalinjîr. The Gujarât force was to enter Mâlhwâ by Dôhud. Other troops were on the Upper Sône, and on the Upper Narbaddah. The whole British force amounted to 116,000 men, having 300 guns.

123. Sindia.—The Governor-General first took up his position with the main army near Gwâlîôr, where Sindia was compelled to sign a treaty, by which he engaged fully to co-operate with the British in restoring peace and order, by the extermination of all the predatory hordes, a measure of which he especially was to reap the fruits. This was completed on the very day of Bâjî Râo's attack on the Residency. Sindia's co-operation was very insincere and tardy, but he was effectually prevented from openly joining in the war.

124. Malcolm.—Sir John Malcolm was appointed the agent of the Governor-General, with ample political powers, in the Dakhan. Bâjî Râo deceived Sir John by his protestations, but Mr. Elphinstone was thoroughly convinced of his treacherous designs.

The first great episode of the Pindârî war was the outbreak of Pûna.

The Attack on the Pûna Residency, November 5, 1817.—The Peshwâ was even then maturing his plans for an attack on the Residency. Mr. Elphinstone brought the British troops together to Kirkî, four miles from Pûna. Bâjî Râo had determined to spare no one of the whole British residents except two persons, Dr. Coats, who had cured him of an illness, and Major Ford, the commandant.

The Peshwâ's prime minister and commander-in-chief was Bappu Goklâ (nephew of an officer called Dhundû Pant), a

chivalrous and honourable officer, the last of the great Mahratta warriors.

The battle of Kirki.—When it was evident that the attack was about to begin, Mr. Elphinstone withdrew to Kirki, and a battle ensued between the Mahratta army, which consisted of 18,000 horse, and 8000 foot, with fourteen guns, and Major Ford's troops, consisting of 2800 rank and file, of whom 800 were Europeans.

The Mahrattas were easily defeated and driven off. The Peshwâ, however, plundered the Residency, murdered several officers who were seized while travelling, and committed other acts of barbarous cruelty.

125. General Smith, who was encamped near the Chanda hills, now marched on Pûna. Bâji Râo fled before him. The English general occupied the city, and pursued the Peshwâ, who fled to Mâhuli (Mowlee), a sacred place near Satârâ, at the confluence of the Yêna and Kishtna, thence to Panderpûr, thence to the north of Junûr (where, having been joined by Trimbakji, he fortified himself at Bâmanwârî), and finally to the south. There the Râja of Satârâ and his family joined the English general.

Meanwhile a battalion, consisting of about 500 men, belonging to the 1st Regiment, was sent for from Serûr by Colonel Barr, who then commanded in Pûna.

The heroic defence of Korigâom, January 1, 1818.—It marched on the 21st December 1817, attended by 300 irregular horse, all under the command of Captain Francis Staunton. On reaching Korigâom (January 1, 1818), they found 25,000 Mahratta horse on the opposite bank of the Bîma. These, with 5000 of the Peshwâ's infantry, attacked the British troops, who were exhausted by a long night march, were without food or water, and compelled to fight under a blazing sun. The conflict raged all day, and at nightfall the Peshwâ's army retreated. The Peshwâ himself, from a height two miles distant, beheld the fight. The heroic Captain Staunton lost 175 men in killed and wounded, but the Mahrattas lost about 600 men.

This was the most heroic event of the war, the *famous defence of Korigâom*.

The Peshwâ now fled towards the Carnatic. On the banks of the Cutpurbâ he found General Thomas Munro, commissioner of those ceded districts (afterwards Governor of Madras), with troops raised on the spot, ready to oppose him. He then fled towards Shôlapûr.

126. Satârâ occupied.—On February 10, 1818, Satârâ was taken. The next day the Bhagwa Jenda (or swallow-tail flag of Sivaji) was hoisted, and a proclamation was issued, declaring that Bâji Râo and his family were excluded from all share in the government, which was assumed by the Governor-General, reserving a small tract around Satârâ for the comfortable and dignified maintenance of the Râja.

Battle of Ashtâ.—The decisive battle, where Goklâ fell, was fought at *Ashtâ*, between Shôlapûr and Panderpûr, February 19.

The Peshwâs from 1714 to 1818.—Thus fell the house of Bâlâji Vishwanâth, which from 1714 had in reality swayed the Mahratta sceptre.

Bâji Râo surrenders.—Bâji Râo, after wandering about with his army, suffering great privations, and looking vainly for help from the Mahratta chiefs, themselves in great straits, surrendered to Sir John Malcolm, who guaranteed him the princely pension of eight lakhs of rupees per annum.

Bitûr, near Khânpûr, was assigned as his residence. There he died in January 1853.

Trimbakji managed to evade his pursuers, till he was seized by Lieutenant Swanston; and was retained a prisoner to the period of his death, in the fort of Chunâr, on the Ganges.

Bâji Râo had no sons. He adopted Sirik Dhundû Pant, commonly called the Nânâ Sahêb. This man, infamous for the Khânpûr massacres, perished (as is supposed) in the Nîpal jungles.

Thus ended the line of the Peshwâs.

127. Nâgpûr.—*Appâ Sahêb* (sometimes called Mûdaji Bhonslê), regent of Nâgpûr, procured the murder of Parsaji (though this was not then known), and so succeeded him.

He determined to abet the Peshwâ in his treacherous schemes. Mr. Jenkins was then Resident.

The vacillating and timid Appâ Sahêb did not show his real colours till November 24. He was not aware then that the Peshwâ had made his attack, and failed, but a few days before (November 5).

Mr. Jenkins had about 1400 men fit for duty. Appâ Sahêb's troops were about 18,000. Thus the Mahratta army was more than twelve times that of the British.

The Residency was at Sîtabaldî, two hills to the west of Nâgpûr. The Mahratta attack was foiled chiefly by the gallantry of Colonel Hopeton Scott and Captain Fitzgerald. It began on the evening of November 26, and was not finally repulsed till about noon the next day. In gallantry it almost equalled Korigâom.

The Battle of Nâgpûr.—Reinforcements soon arrived under General Doveton, and Appâ Sahêb surrendered. The fort of Nâgpûr, still held by the Arab mercenaries, was stormed. (**Appâ Sahêb.**) Appâ was reinstated with the most stringent provisions for his fidelity to the British power; but, beginning almost immediately to intrigue again, was arrested by Mr. Jenkins, and sent, by command of the Governor-General, to be imprisoned at Allâhâbâd; but he escaped on the road, joined Chitu, the Pindârî chief, was in the fort of Asîrghar when it was taken; and after many wanderings took refuge with the Sikhs, and finally found his way to Jôdhpûr, where he lived and died in utter obscurity (1840).

A grandson of the late Raghuji Bhonslê was put on the Musnud, assuming his grandfather's name.

From this time Nâgpûr may be considered to have been under British Government; and owing to the wise management of Mr. Jenkins, the Resident, it flourished greatly.

A treaty was signed by this Râja, when he attained his majority in 1826, renouncing all dependence upon the Râja of Satârâ, and all connection with that prince or any other Mahratta power; and confirming in all essential particulars the former subsidiary treaty made with Appâ Sahêb.

Raghuji dying in 1853 without issue, his dominions were annexed.

Under successive British Commissioners the whole district has since attained unprecedented prosperity.

128. The Defeat of the Pindâris.—We must return from these two episodes, recording the fortunes of the last Peshwâ, and of the Nâgpûr Râj, to the *Pindâris*.

They were under three leaders: Chîtu, Kharîm Khân, and Wasîl Muhammad.

This last was the son of Hîra, a distinguished Pindârî leader under Mahâdajî Sindia.

Sir John Malcolm, in concert with the generals of the other divisions, gradually drove them from their haunts across the Narbaddah.

Chîtu finally took refuge in Holkâr's camp, near Mehîdpûr, on the right bank of the Sîpra. Tulsî Bâî, the regent, had at length been compelled by the chiefs around her to join the confederacy against the British; and had marched to that place, where a great and decisive battle was fought.

Tulsî Bâî.—Tulsî Bâî was put to death by her troops, because they suspected her of a design to treat with the English. She was a woman of great beauty, tact, and intellect; but vindictive and dissolute.

129. The Battle of Mehîdpûr.—Mulhâr Râo Holkâr's troops were now about 20,000 in number, and were encamped on the Sîpra, a tributary of the Chambal. They were a splendid body of cavalry, full of enthusiasm. Sir J. Hislop and Sir John Malcolm crossed the river, attacked the enemy's strong position, carried it, dispersed them, and gained a complete victory, December 21, 1817.

130. Treaty of Mundisôr.—At Mundisôr (or Mandêshwar), in Râjpûtâna, January 6th, 1818, a treaty between the young Mulhâr Râo Holkâr and the Governor-General was signed. By this treaty he abandoned all authority over the Râjpûts, and placed himself absolutely under British protection, thus securing his territories and his dignity.

The Holkâr Family.—Mulhâr Râo Holkâr died childless in 1833, at the age of twenty-eight.

After some disputes, Harî Râo Holkâr, son of a brother of Jeswant Râo, was installed at Indôr, March 1834. He died in

1843. His adopted son, Khandî Râo (no relation), died the following year. Tûkajî Râo II. then succeeded. He attained his majority in 1852.

131. Sindia's History.—Daulat Râo Sindia, overawed by the near approach of Lord Hastings's army, remained quiet, and there is nothing more of importance to record of him. He retained his dominions in peace.

He died in March 1827, after a reign of thirty-four years.

His adopted son, Jankoji, succeeded; but quarrels between him and Baiji Bâi, widow of Sindia, and daughter of the infamous Ghâtgê, increased by the indecision of Lord William Bentinck, ended in the expulsion of the Bâi.

132. The Pindârî Leaders.—Of the three Pindârî leaders, Kharîm Khân surrendered to Sir John Malcolm in February 1818; Wasîl Muhammad gave himself up to Sindia, and subsequently poisoned himself; and Chîtu only remained. He was driven from one place to another, his followers gradually forsaking him, until he was devoured by a tiger in the jungles near Asirghar.

The fort of Asirghar itself, however, was not taken by General Doveton until April 9th, 1819. This was the last exploit in the war; here the Mahrattas made their final effort.

133. Conclusion of the Third Mahratta War.—The conclusion of the Pindârî war was marked by a general arrangement with the lesser chiefs, whom the Mahrattas had hitherto oppressed, bringing them under British protection. These affairs were managed by Sir David Ochterlony with great tact and discretion.

The Râja of Bûndî, the Râja of Bhôpâl, and those of Jeypûr and Jôdhpûr were among the chiefs who received additional territory.

Âjmîr and Mairwarra were made over to the English.

134. The Râja of Satârâ restored, April 11, 1818.—After the surrender of Bâjî Râo, the Râja of Satârâ was, with great pomp, restored, and seated on the throne by the British authorities.

Grant Duff.—He immediately issued a proclamation, making over the government to Captain Grant Duff, the author of the *Mahratta History*. The Râja's name was Pratâb Singh (son of Sâhu II.), then in his twenty-seventh year.

The Râja intrigued against his benefactors; and, in 1839, Sir James Carnac, Governor of Bombay (1839-1841), gave him every opportunity of retracing his steps; but he was obstinate, and was deposed, his brother being raised to the nominal dignity. The ex-Râja died in October 1847, and the Râja himself in April 1848; and Satârâ was annexed to the British dominions by consent of the Home authorities in 1849.

135. Political Officers.—The whole country was now divided among various British officers, who gradually brought it into order.

A great part of the Mahratta country forms part of the Bombay Presidency. Some of the tributary chieftains are under the agents for Central India, Râjpûtâna, and Central Provinces, the most important being Sindia of Gwâliôr, Holkâr of Indôr, and the Gackwâr of Bâroda.

CHAPTER VI

THE PORTUGUESE—THE DUTCH—THE DANES—EARLY ENGLISH AND FRENCH

PART I.—THE PORTUGUESE—THE SEA-ROUTE TO INDIA.

1. Diáz rounds the Cape.—In 1486, Bartolommeo Diaz, an experienced and enterprising Portuguese navigator, passed the most southerly point of Africa, naming it the Cape of Tempests; but King John II., who had far more comprehensive views, called it the Cape of Good Hope; for a new route of navigation to the East had now been discovered.

2. Da Gâma lands in India.—In 1497, Vasco da Gâma, the famous navigator, was sent out by King Emmanuel, the enlightened patron of sea-adventure; passed the southern extremity of the mighty continent without encountering any storms or dangers; and, skirting the eastern coast of Africa, procured a pilot at Melinda, from whence he steered boldly across the Indian Ocean, and cast anchor off Calicut, on 11th of May 1498.

3. Da Gâma in Calicut.—The Râja of Calicut was a Hindû. The port was open to merchants of every nation; but the trade was in the hands of the Muhammadans (or Moors) from Arabia, Egypt, and the eastern coast of Africa.

Muhammadanism had made great progress in Malabâr owing to the efforts of these Arabian traders. Of these converts the Mâpillas (Moplas) are the descendants.

These Moors, who trafficked in every great port of India, Africa, and the Mediterranean, were the rivals and bitter enemies

of the Portuguese; and often combined with their fellow-Muhammadans in India.

Da Gâma landed in great pomp, and had an interview with the Râja, who received him with kindness; which, however, was soon turned into suspicion by the artifices of the Muhammadans. Finding his armament insufficient, he returned to Portugal, where he arrived in August 1499; and was ennobled and amply rewarded by Emmanuel, King of Portugal (1498-1521), whose reign was thus rendered memorable by the foundation of the Portuguese power in the East.

4. Cabral.—The next Portuguese expedition to India, under Alvarez Cabral, sailed in A.D. 1500.

He was accompanied by eight friars, with instructions to propagate Christianity wherever they came, and to carry fire and sword into every country that refused to receive it. Thus they irritated the Muhammadans by their cruel intolerance.

1500.—In the storms this expedition encountered while passing the Cape, Bartholomew Diaz, who had first rounded it, perished in 1500.

Cabral arrived at Calicut in September 1500. He was at first received with kindness, but jealousies soon arose. He captured a ship belonging to the Moors, who in revenge attacked the factory, and massacred fifty of the Portuguese. Cabral revenged himself by burning the Moorish ships and bombarding the town, after which he withdrew to Cochin, a city second at that time to Calicut only. Here he was well received, as at Cannanûr also. The Râjas of these places were at enmity with their nominal superior the Zamorin.

He reached Lisbon, July 31, 1501, where the story of his disasters excited strong interest.

5. Vasco da Gâma's Second Expedition.—Vasco da Gâma was at the head of a new expedition, bent on revenging the supposed wrongs of Cabral, and of carrying things with a still higher hand.

He tarnished the lustre of his name by seizing a Moorish ship, and burning it with all its crew. Anchoring off Calicut, he demanded redress for the injuries sustained by Cabral, and

when some delay occurred, collected fifty natives from different captured ships, and cut their throats, sending their hands and feet on shore to Zamorin.

After this the natives contrived to get him into their power, but he escaped, and set sail for Portugal. This expedition seems to have been entirely fruitless.

6. Albuquerque.—The next expedition, in 1504, was under the two brothers Alphonso and Francisco Albuquerque, and Saldanha.

ALPHONSO ALBUQUERQUE is the greatest name in Indo-Portuguese history. He was not uniformly successful, nor perhaps always prudent.

At this period, the Zamorin, enraged at the countenance afforded to the foreigners by Triampâra, the Raja of Cochin, had attacked and driven him from his capital to the island of Vipeen, where he was rescued by Albuquerque. After an unsuccessful attempt to arrange matters with the Zamorin, the Albuquerques returned to Europe, leaving the fleet in the hand of Duarte Pacheco.

7. Duarte Pacheco, 1504.—DUARTE PACHECO was a man of rare valour, a most able commander, and a far-sighted politician.

His great exploit was the defence of Cochin, and the signal defeat of the formidable armaments of the Zamorin. No sooner had the Albuquerques departed than the Zamorin again attacked Cochin with an overwhelming force. Pacheco took the command of the Cochin forces, consisting of a few hundreds of native soldiers and 400 Portuguese. With these he defeated an army of 50,000 men, trained by some Milanese deserters, and aided by a fleet of 160 vessels. Not one of the defenders fell. A second attack and a third were similarly repulsed, with great slaughter, and Pacheco had at length the satisfaction of seeing the Zamorin's armament return to Calicut utterly defeated.

8. Lope Soares soon superseded Pacheco, who had spent his fortune in his country's service. The latter was made Governor of Elmina, where false accusations being brought against him, he was sent home in chains. He was honourably acquitted, but died in obscurity.

Soarez took Cranganôr. By his overbearing temper he destroyed the prospect of peace with the Zamorin, and returned to Europe.

THE FIRST VICEROY. ALMEYDA.

9. FRANCISCO ALMEYDA, the first Portuguese Viceroy of India, was sent out in A.D. 1505.

He received an embassy from Vijayanagar (or Narsinga) bringing splendid presents, and offering the Râja's daughter in marriage to Prince John (afterwards John III., 1521-1557), son of King Emmanuel. He had orders to build forts at Anjedio, an island fifty miles south of Goa, and at Cannanore.

War with Egypt.—This year the Mameluke Sultân of Egypt, Khânsu Ghôrî, fitted out a fleet to contest with the Portuguese the empire of the Arabian Sea, instigated by the Venetians, who were jealous of the monopoly of Indian productions now possessed by Portugal. A terrible naval battle was fought off Chaul, which lasted two days. The Egyptians were aided by the King of Gujarât, Mahmûd Bêgara, who sent a fleet under Aiâz Sultânî (Malikâz). Mahmûd had fitted out his fleet originally to destroy pirates, but he zealously aided the Sultân in his project of sweeping the infidels from the Eastern seas. The Musalmân fleet on this occasion gained an advantage.

10. **The Second Portuguese Viceroy, 1508-1515.**—Meanwhile (in 1508) Alphonso Albuquerque landed the second time in India, bringing a commission to supersede Almeyda.

ALBUQUERQUE is therefore the second Viceroy, or Governor-General of Portuguese India.

Almeyda, refusing to yield to him, sailed on an expedition to attack the Musalmân fleet, and to avenge the death of his son.

He attacked Dâbul on his way, and burnt the city, with the most dreadful and atrocious cruelty.

He then sailed to the Gulf of Cambay, where he met the combined fleets off Diû.

He was completely successful, but stained his victory with the blood of his prisoners. This put an end to the designs of the Sultân. Portugal remained supreme in the Arabian Gulf.

On his return to Cochin, he was with difficulty persuaded by Coutinho, a general who had come out, and had claimed equal powers with Albuquerque, to resign his office to Albuquerque, and set sail for Portugal. (**Death of Almeyda, 1509.**) On the way home, he landed on the African coast, and fell in a miserable scuffle with a band of Hottentots.

Thus ignobly perished (in 1509) the first Portuguese Viceroy.

THE SECOND VICEROY ALBUQUERQUE.

11. ALBUQUERQUE, his successor, from the first burned with ambition to reduce all India beneath the sway of Portugal.

He nearly lost his life in an abortive attack on Calicut.

1509.—His next project was to seize Goa, which is situated on an island, on the west coast, and then belonged to Bijapur. He was instigated to this by a pirate, Timmuji.

He took possession of it easily, but was soon driven out by Yusuf Âdil Shâh in person.

A second attempt was successful after a protracted contest. He had thus got, what he justly considered to be essential to Portuguese supremacy in the East, a spacious harbour and a considerable city.

He immediately sent embassies to the different native courts, and received their envoys with great splendour.

He encouraged intermarriages between his officers and respectable native families.

12. Ormuz, 1510.—Ormuz, an island which commands the entrance to the Persian Gulf, had been nearly taken by Albuquerque on his way out. He now fitted out a splendid expedition, which easily wrested it from its petty ruler, and this place soon became the centre of the trade between India, Persia, and Western Asia. A splendid city rose on this uninviting spot. A.D. 1510.

Aden.—An expedition planned by him against Aden failed.

Having secured such an admirable emporium as Ormuz in the Arabian Gulf, he now, with far-seeing wisdom, resolved to establish a city in the Eastern Archipelago, which should com-

mand the trade between India, China, and the vast islands of the Eastern seas. He fixed upon Malacca, and, not without difficulty, captured it from its Malay founders in 1511.

Here, too, a splendid city speedily rose. He strove in the Malayan peninsula, as everywhere else, to join together the natives and the Portuguese by the bond of a common interest, treating them as friends and equals. Albuquerque also sent embassies to Siam, Jâva, and Sumatra.

13. Lope Soarez, 1515.—But Albuquerque was growing old, and, strange to say, was superseded by LOPE SOAREZ, the *third Portuguese Viceroy*. He had been in India before

Albuquerque, dismissed without a reason, and without anything that might have softened the blow, died broken-hearted.

Death of Albuquerque, 1515.—In a ship near Goa he breathed his last, and was buried on shore (A.D. 1515).

FROM 1530 TO 1580.

14. The Capture of Diû, 1534.—The circumstances under which Diû became a Portuguese city (1534) are remarkable. Vasco da Gâma returned as Viceroy in 1530, but died three months after his arrival.

Bassein and Salsette were ceded to the Portuguese.

Bahâdar Shâh was King of Mâlwa from A.D. 1526.

This was the time chosen by Nunho Cunha, then the Portuguese Viceroy, to attack Diû. The attack was unsuccessful, but Bahâdar entered into negotiations with the Portuguese, which resulted in their occupation of Diû, and the erection of a fort. There was, however, much jealousy on both sides. Bahâdar one day went on board the ship where the viceroy was sick, or pretended to be so, and an inexplicable tumult arose, in which Bahâdar was killed and many others, both natives and Portuguese. The suspicion cannot be avoided that treachery was designed by the latter. About the same time they took Damân. These two small places still remain under the power of Portugal.

Bombay was occupied in 1530, and made over to England in 1661.

15. Siege of Diû.—The year 1538 is memorable for the siege of Diû by the Gujarât forces, aided by the Pasha of Egypt, under orders from his superior, Sulaimân the Magnificent, the Ottoman Sultân of Constantinople. Gracio de Noronha was now viceroy. But to the brave Silveira must be ascribed the glory of the gallant defence. The besiegers did not desist from the attempt, till the Portuguese, who had fought with unparalleled determination, were reduced to forty persons.

16. Francis Xavier, 1506-1552.—The greatest man connected with the Portuguese in India is FRANCIS XAVIER, born 1506, in Navarre, of an illustrious family of royal descent, companion of Ignatius Loyola, and one of the founders of the order of Jesuits. He came out under the patronage of John III., who appointed Martin*Alphonso de Souza Viceroy in 1541, especially because he was zealous for the propagation of Christianity.

Xavier preached, baptized, and founded missions, which still flourish, along the coast of Southern India, in Malacca, in the Spice Islands, and in Japan. He died on the island of *Chang Chuen*, in an attempt to introduce Christianity into China (1552). His body is buried in Goa. He was canonised, and is generally styled the *Apostle of the Indies*. He was one of the greatest men of Christendom.

17. Juan de Castro.—In 1545, JUAN DE CASTRO, one of the most celebrated of the Portuguese viceroys, arrived, and found the port of Diû hard pressed. He relieved it, took possession of the native city, and gave it up to indiscriminate plunder and massacre. He then made a triumphal entry into Goa, with the royal standard of the Gujarât king dragged in the dust.

18. Confederation against the Portuguese, 1571.—It is not surprising, then, that in 1571 a combination was formed by Ali Âdil Shâh of Bijapûr, Murteza Nizâm Shâh of Ahmadnagar, and the Zamorin, to drive the Portuguese out of India. Goa was besieged by a mighty host under Âdil Shâh, and Chaul by another at the same time under Murteza. But the valour of the Portuguese, and the skill of their Viceroy, *Luis de Ataide*, præ-

ailed, and, after a ten months' siege, Goa was saved. The other attacks too were repulsed.

The Portuguese settlements in India were now divided into three distinct governments, Ceylon, Goa, and Malacca. But the sure progress of decay was felt in all.

19. Decay of Portuguese power, 1580-1656.—From 1580 to 1640 Portugal was under the sway of Spain; and during that period, though isolated acts of heroism were occasionally performed, the trade of Portugal declined, her colonies languished, and her sceptre gradually passed into the hands of the Dutch.

We find the degenerate successors of Albuquerque trembling before Sivaji in 1662, paying tribute to the Mahrattas, although at times valiantly opposing them, and, surpassing them in barbarity.

In 1739 the Mahrattas took Bassein from the Portuguese after a terrible siege. This was a great triumph to that rising power.

In 1607 the Moluccas were seized by the Dutch.

1622 Persia seized upon Ormuz, and the Imâm of Muscat gradually stripped them of most of their possessions on the east coast of Africa.

In 1640 Malacca was occupied by the Dutch.

In 1656 they were driven from Ceylon by the same indefatigable enemy.

20. The present Portuguese possessions are Goa, Diû, and Daman.

21. European Powers in India.—The Portuguese were followed in succession by the Dutch (A.D. 1594), by the English (A.D. 1600), by the French (A.D. 1668), and by the Danes (A.D. 1616)

PART II.—THE DUTCH EAST INDIA COMPANY.

22. The Dutch had no sooner freed themselves from the tyranny of Spain than they turned their attention to the Eastern trade. They endeavoured first of all to find a northern route by sea to India and China.

This failing, they sent out four ships under a man called Houtman, who had obtained some knowledge of the East (A.D. 1594).

The destination of these and of several succeeding expeditions was the Eastern Archipelago, where they carried on a thriving trade in spices.

Dutch rivalries with the Portuguese, 1594.—They soon began to try to supplant the Portuguese, and easily expelled them from the Moluccas.

This led to open war between the two nations, and in 1605 the Dutch expelled the Portuguese from Amboyna and Tidor, and fully established their own supremacy in the Eastern seas.

In 1656, the Dutch drove their rivals from Ceylon, where they themselves established large and prosperous factories.

It was ceded to England in 1799.

They at length founded the colony of Batavia, on the north-west coast of Java, which is still the capital of the Dutch settlements in the East (1610).

In 1640 they drove the Portuguese from Malacca, and now their only rivals in the Eastern seas and islands were the English. They very soon lost their supremacy.

Their chief settlements in India were at Negapatam (taken from Portugal, 1660), Sadras, Pulicat, and Bimlipatam. These have all fallen into the hands of the British (1783). Cochin was taken in 1796.

PART III.—THE DANISH COMPANY.

23. The Danes in India, 1616.—The Government of Denmark has only held two settlements in India, at Tranquebâr (bought from the Râja of Tanjore, A.D. 1616), and at Serampore, on the Hûgli.

These were sold to the English in A.D. 1845.

Tranquebâr and Serampore.—Both places have been celebrated for the laborious and learned men, who were there engaged in translating the Christian Scriptures into the vernacular languages of India, and in other works connected with the propagation of Christianity in the East. The memory of Ziegenbalg

(1706-1719) and Fabricius (1739-1791), who lived in Tranquebâr, and of the noble band of the Serampore missionaries, Carey, Marshman, and Ward, will ever command the respect of all who know how to value self-denying, benevolent, and heroic effort.

Schwartz.—Schwartz, another excellent Christian missionary (1750-1798), resided for eleven years in Tranquebâr and afterwards in Trichinopoly and Tanjore. He was sent as an envoy to Haidar in 1779.

PART IV.—THE ENGLISH IN INDIA.

24. The First English in India, 1597.—The example of the Portuguese and Dutch was not lost upon the English.

One of the first Englishmen who visited India was a man of the name of Thomas Stevens, of New College, Oxford, who went to Goa in 1597. The narrative of his travels excited immense interest in England. He was principal of a college in Salsette in 1608. Then came the travels of Storey, Newberry, Leedes, and Fitch. They carried a letter from Queen Elizabeth to Akbar. Storey remained in Goa as a monk. Leedes took service under the Emperor Akbar.

25. The first English East India Company.—In A.D. 1600 (at the time when England was in the zenith of her glory), the most extraordinary chartered body, as to its constitution and fortunes, that was ever formed, the British East India Company, was incorporated by Queen Elizabeth. At the time no great enthusiasm was shown. It was proved by the promoters of the undertaking that spices, indigo, and silk, could be bought for one-third of the price in Malabâr that the English merchants were giving in Aleppo or Alexandria, but money came in slowly.

There were twenty-four directors and a governor. The first 'chairman of the Court of Directors' was Thomas Smythe. Their first ships sailed in 1601, but the destination of these was the islands of the Eastern Archipelago.

26. Captain Hawkins.—Meanwhile an expedition (the first to

India), under Captain Hawkins, arrived in Sûrat in 1609, with letters to Jehângîr, from James I., and from the East India Company. Hawkins delivered his letters in person, was honourably received, and remained at Âgra for three years.

27. Middleton.—Sir Hugh Middleton arrived at Sûrat in 1610. Here the Company's first factory was established in 1611, not without great opposition from the Portuguese.

28. Jehângîr.—Jehângîr, in the year of his marriage with Nûr Jehân, gave permission to the English to establish four factories in his dominions. This firman was signed in 1613.

Best's victory.—This result was partly due to the fact that Captain Best, with four ships of war, had encountered and defeated a Portuguese fleet off Sûrat, and thus gained for the English a reputation for superior prowess. This was in 1612.

29. Sir Thomas Roe's embassy to Jehângîr.—The embassy of Sir Thomas Roe (in 1615) was of even more importance. He was received with great kindness, and had ample opportunities of seeing the emperor's court and capital. General permission to trade throughout the empire was now given to the English.

In 1616 we find an English factory at Âjmir.

30. In 1616, the Company had factories at Sûrat, Calicut, and Masulipatam.

They had also a settlement at Bantam in Java, and to this the Indian settlements were subordinate.

31. The Company become rulers.—The year 1624 is rendered remarkable by the concession to the Company of the power to punish their servants, even capitally.

In 1634 permission was given to the English to trade with Bengâl, but they were restricted to the one port of Pipli in Midnâpûr.

32. Gabriel Boughton.—During the reign of Shâh Jehân (in 1636), Mr. Boughton, an English surgeon, was sent according to

the emperor's request to attend his sick daughter, and, succeeding in curing her, he obtained from the emperor's gratitude extensive privileges for his countrymen.

33. Madras founded.—In 1639, Fort St. George, or Madras, was founded by Mr. Francis Day. The Coromandel coast was, in fact, found more convenient for the purchase of 'piece goods,' muslins from Dacca, and cotton goods from the Dakhan.

Armogam.—The factory had previously been placed at Armogam, thirty-six miles N. of Pulicat (1625). The Hindû governor offered to build a fort for the English at his own expense, and to exempt the trade from customs-duties, if the English would settle at Madras.

Madras was fortified at the command of Charles I. He blamed the Company for 'neglecting to establish fortified factories where the king's subjects could reside with safety.'

34. In 1650 we first hear of a factory at Hûgli, and at Bâlasôr in 1642.

35. In 1653 Madras was made a separate presidency. Cromwell, very characteristically, wished to abolish the Company's monopoly, but was prevailed upon to grant a charter in 1657.

In 1661 Charles II. issued a new charter.

36. The defence of Sûrat.—The military reputation of the English was extended through the defence of Sûrat by Sir George Oxenden (Governor of Bombay, 1665-1667); when attacked by Sivajî in 1664.

All fled but the English, who resisted the invader, and protected the inhabitants.

Aurungzib testified his admiration and gratitude by remitting certain dues and charges payable by them to the imperial treasury.

37. In 1668, Bombay, which had been given as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza, was handed over to the Company, and became the chief presidency in India. It was

made the chief seat of the British Government in 1683. As early as 1664 they traded with Malabâr, and in 1708 obtained a grant of Tellicherry.

It was in 1688 that the 'tea-trade' was first heard of.

38. Sir John Child.—In 1682 the affairs of the Company were in the hands of Sir Josiah Child, a London merchant, with Sir John, his brother, who resided at Sûrat, and was almost Governor-General of India. He first set to work to put down the British interlopers. Troubles began in Bengâl where the English had to sieze Hûgli, 1686, and defended themselves at Chattanatti near Calcutta. Aurungzib ordered Bombay to be attacked (1689), and Sir John being ill sued for peace. The emperor insisted on his retiring, but he died in 1690. In 1698 Fort William was erected by a new company, and in 1702 the two companies were incorporated under Queen Anne.

The history of Calcutta to 1756 is little else than a record of the efforts of the British merchants to resist the exactions of the Nuwâb of Mûrshedâbâd.

39. In 1715 a deputation was sent to the Emperor Farukhshîr, to secure a greater degree of protection from the native powers.

They were successful, chiefly due to the surgical skill of a Dr. Hamilton, and Calcutta was thereupon declared a separate presidency (1715).

PART V.—THE FRENCH IN INDIA.

40. French East India Company.—Various French East India Companies were formed, and expeditions made by that nation, from A.D. 1604.

Colbert.—But the celebrated Colbert has the merit of establishing the Company on a firm footing, in 1664, Louis XIV. declaring that trade to India was not beneath the dignity of a noble.

• This company was dissolved in 1769.

Caron.—Their first settlement in India was at Sûrat, where both the English and the Dutch had flourishing factories.

The leader was François Caron.

In 1669 they obtained a settlement at Masulipatam.

They took Trincomalee and Meilâpûr (or St. Thomé) from the Dutch in 1672, but lost them again in 1674, the English being neutral.

They now bought a piece of land from the Bijapûr Government, on which they erected the city called now Pondicherry (Puthu-chêri=*new town*).

41. François Martin, the founder of Pondicherry.—François Martin, an honoured name in French history, was its founder. He died in 1706.

May 1677.—Martin's first danger was from Sivajî, who, during his expedition to the Carnatic, his last great effort, threatened Pondicherry, but was conciliated by the judicious measures of the French Governor. Martin's next enemies were the Dutch, who in 1693 attacked and took Pondicherry.

42. In 1697 the peace of Ryswick was signed, Pondicherry was restored, and Martin returned in triumph to enlarge and fortify it, and to raise it by skilful policy, good government, and fair dealing, to the rank of a great commercial city. He was an able man, and a magnanimous and disinterested patriot.

43. Chandernagar, 1688.—In 1688 the French obtained from Aurungzib a settlement at Chandernagar, when Shayista Khân was Viceroy of Bengâl.

44. Mahé de la Bourdonnais. Born 1699. Died 1753.—In 1725 Mahî was added to the French possessions. Its name was Mahî, but it was taken chiefly by the daring and ingenuity of a young French naval officer, *Bertrand François Mahé de la Bourdonnais*, and the slight change in the name was made in honour of the captor, who was destined, twenty years afterwards, to act a memorable part in the affairs of South India.

45 Dupleix in Chandernagar.—In 1731 JOSEPH FRANÇOIS DUPLEIX was appointed director of Chandernagar, which he

raised from a well-nigh deserted port to a flourishing emporium. He also amassed by trade, then permitted to the Company's servants, a vast fortune. There he remained till 1741.

46 Mauritius and Bourbon, 1672.—Meanwhile, in the Isles of France and Bourbon, a great colony had been founded.

The Isle of France, originally Cerné, was called Mauritius by the Dutch (in honour of Prince Maurice of Nassau), which name it now bears.

47 Dumas, 1735-1741.—The French governor of these islands, M. DUMAS, in 1735, became Governor-General of the French possessions in India, which position he filled till succeeded by Dupleix in 1741.

DUMAS was worthy of his predecessor, Martini. In his time began that system of interference with the affairs of the Hindû princes, which has led to such mighty results.

In 1710 Sâdat-ulla-Khân was appointed Nuwâb, or Deputy-Governor, of the Carnatic by Dâûd Khân Pannî. He was the first who attempted to make the office hereditary. (*Dôst Ali*.) In 1733 he died at his capital, Arcot, and his nephew, Dôst Ali, succeeded him, without any sanction, however, from Delhi. He relied greatly on the French, as the only European nation whose position at that time commanded respect.

48. Chandâ Sahêb.—The most prominent person in the Carnatic, however, at that time, was a son-in-law of Dôst Ali (and his Diwân), whose name was Chandâ Sahêb, who assumed the position of a free lance, and who was enthusiastically devoted to the French, by whom he was always supported.

In 1736 Chandâ Sahêb made himself master of Trichinopoly by treachery. The Râja of that place had died without heirs, and, a dispute arising, the widow, Mînâkshi Ammâl, applied to Dôst Ali, Nawâb of Arcot, for assistance. He sent to Chandâ Sahêb, who entered the city, after taking an oath to defend the Rânî, but immediately imprisoned her, and assumed the government.

49. Another affair in which Chandâ Sahêb was concerned led to important results for the French.

The kingdom of Tanjore was held by Sâhuji, a relative of the great Sivaji, who was about this time dispossessed by a pretended cousin.

Kâricâl.—This expelled king offered Dumas the town of *Kâricâl* and some adjoining villages, as the price of his restoration. Meanwhile, however, he regained his kingdom without French aid. Dumas was disappointed.

Chandâ Sahêb, however, stepped in, offered Dumas to take the coveted villages from Sâhuji, with whom he was at war, and to make them over to the French. This he did, and from that date (1739) Kâricâl and the neighbouring villages have belonged to France.

50. Meanwhile, the Mahrattas, jealous of these Muhammadan conquests, advanced with a large army into the Carnatic, under Râghuji Bhonslê and Morâri Râo.

Death of Dôst Ali, 1740. The first battle of Ambûr.—Dôst Ali met them near Ambûr, at the Dâmalchêri Pass (about 120 miles N.W. of Madras), but was there defeated and slain (1740).

The widow of Dôst Ali, with the wife and son of Chandâ Sahêb, found a refuge in Pondicherry.

The Mahrattas made an engagement with Safder Ali, the son of Dôst Ali, by which he was recognised as Nawâb of Arcot, paying a large tribute and assisting the Mahrattas to expel his ambitious brother-in-law, Chandâ Sahêb, from Trichinopoly.

51. **Assassination of Safder Ali.**—Safder Ali and Chandâ Sahêb met in Pondicherry, from whence the former departed to Arcot, where he was soon assassinated, and Chandâ Sahêb to Trichinopoly, where his well-merited punishment was in due time to overtake him. The Mahrattas lost no time in investing Trichinopoly, took Chandâ Sahêb prisoner (March 1741), and conveyed him to Satârâ, where he languished for seven years in prison. Morâri Râo was left Governor of Trichinopoly.

There Chandâ Sahêb formed a romantic friendship with Muzaffir Jung, a grandson of Nizâm-ul-Mulk.

52. **Raghuji before Pondicherry.**—Raghuji still threatened

Pondicherry, but, awed by the firm attitude of M. Dumas, and bribed by a present of French liqueurs, eventually left him unmolested.

This brave resistance to the Mahrattas was M. Dumas's last act, and, amid the praises of all South India, with the thanks of the aged Nizâm-ul-Mulk, of Salder Ali, and of the emperor himself, who even conferred on him the title of Nawâb, he resigned his office to M. DUPLÉIX.

53. Dupleix in Pondicherry, 1741-1754.—Dupleix immediately assumed the state of a Nawâb, proceeded to Chandernagar for installation, and used every effort to strengthen his position.

The War of the Austrian Succession.—The war of the Austrian Succession now broke out in Europe, lasting from 1740 to the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748.* This war had been long expected, and Dupleix had prepared to strike the blow which should expel the English for ever from India. He had already conceived the idea of founding a French Empire in the East.

54 La Bourdonnais in Pondicherry.—Meanwhile a worthy coadjutor of Dupleix, who was afterwards to become his rival and enemy, was ready to join him at this eventful period. This was LA BOURDONNAIS. Mr. Morse was then Governor of Madras (1744-1749), and a squadron of English ships was cruising in the Indian seas, with the design of ruining the French trade.

La Bourdonnais was at that time Governor of the Isles of France and Bourbon, which, by his skill, energy, and indomitable perseverance, he had brought into a most satisfactory state. By wonderful efforts he contrived to equip and man a squadron of ships, and, in spite of opposition at home and tempests at sea, arrived off Negapatam in 1746, and engaged the English squadron, which unaccountably avoided a general engagement and put into Trincomalee.

Madras was thus left exposed (July 1746), while a French fleet was triumphant in the Madras seas. Dupleix and La Bourdonnais in Pondicherry, and Governor Morse in Madras, were the antagonists.

TABLE OF THE EARLY HISTORY OF THE VARIOUS EAST
INDIA COMPANIES.

A. D.			
1498	Vasco da Gâma lands at Calicut.		
1510	Conquest of Goa.		Stevens in Goa (1579).
1515	Death of Albuquerque.		Union of Utrecht (1579).
From 1580 to 1640	Portugal under Spain.		Dutch East India Company established (1595).
1594	—	—	Dutch send ships to India.
1599	—	—	Synod of Diamper.
1600	British East India Company.		
1604	—	First French expedition.	
1605	—	—	Dutch supreme in E. Archipelago.
1608	Hawkins in Sûrat.		
1610	—	—	Batavia founded.
1615	Embassy of Sir T. Roe.		
1616	—	—	Danes buy Tranquebâr (1617).
1624	Power of life and death given to the East India Company.		
1636	Surgeon Boughton.		
1639	Madras founded.		
1654	Fort St. George (Madras) constituted a presidency.	—	
1661	Charles II. gives a new charter.		Dutch take Ceylon (1656).
1664	Oxenden defends Sûrat.	French East India Company formed.	
1668	Bombay made over to East India Company.		
1672	—	French in Mauritius, etc.	
1674	—	Pondicherry founded.	
1687	Bombay made the English capital.		[N.B.—In 1716 a company, called the Ostend East
1688	Tea-trade sprung up.		

1696	Calcutta, etc. bought.			
1698	The second Company formed, and the foundation of Fort William.			India Company, was established. It lasted for 11 years only.]
1702	Amalgamation of Companies.			
1715	Surgeon Hamilton.			
1735	---	Dumas in Pondicherry.		
1739		French in Kâricâl.		Mahrattas take Bassein.
1741		Dupleix in Pondicherry.		
1746	Madras taken.	Paradis gains battle of St. Thomé.		

CHAPTER VII

THE RIVALRIES AND WARS OF THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH
EAST INDIA COMPANIES, FROM A.D. 1746, TO THE
SURRENDER OF PONDICHERRY TO THE ENGLISH, A.D.
1761.

PART I.—1746-1748. THE CAPTURE OF MADRAS TO THE
PEACE OF AIX-LA-CHAPELLE.

1. **La Bourdonnais and Dupleix meet in India.**—LA BOURDONNAIS and Dupleix met on the 8th July 1746.

Their Characters.—Dupleix was a genius; a man of lofty, chivalrous mind; a great statesman, full of the most brilliant conceptions, but no warrior. La Bourdonnais was a soldier, ardent and impetuous; but not possessed of the transcendent abilities of Dupleix. The latter, too, was supreme in India, though at sea the former was independent.

The Wife of Dupleix.—Dupleix was greatly assisted by his wife, whose name was *Jeanne*, which she changed into *Jehân Begum*. She was of French extraction, born in Bengâl, and was very useful to him from her knowledge of native languages and manners.

2. **The First Siege of Madras, 1746.**—After some delays, by no means creditable to La Bourdonnais, Dupleix prevailed upon him to advance to attack Madras, where Governor Morse in vain prayed Anwâr-ud-dîn, the Nawâb of the Carnatic, to interfere for the protection of the English as he had formerly done in behalf of the French. He had the mortification, too, to hear that the English fleet had actually sailed for Bengâl.

On the 21st of September, Governor Morse, therefore, was

compelled to capitulate. The whole of the English became prisoners of war; the town and all in it, with its dependencies, were made over to the French: conditions of ransom were to be settled afterwards. 'The French did not lose a man in the siege; the English only five.' Thus Madras was taken, 107 years after its foundation.

The fate of the captured city had now to be decided by the French leaders. La Bourdonnais, influenced by a bribe of 100,000 pagodas, agreed to allow the English to ransom the city for four lakhs and 40,000 rupees.

Dupleix refused his consent, as his wish was to drive the English out of India; and, if the conquest of Madras had been followed up, this might have been effected. A storm meanwhile shattered the French fleet, and La Bourdonnais, hastily signing the treaty, set sail on the 29th October, having spent about four months on the Indian coast. Having thus thrown away the opportunity of completely crushing the enemies of his country, and of gaining for himself undying fame, he returned to France, and was thrown into the Bastille, where he remained three years; and though acquitted, he died of a broken heart in 1753.

3. The Nawâb of Arcot.—Anwâr-ud-dîn had been no unconcerned spectator of the capture of Madras. Jealous of French aggrandisement, though inclined to favour them, he sent a messenger to Dupleix commanding the French to desist, and threatening to interfere with an armed force. Dupleix unhesitatingly replied, that he was only besieging the town for the Nawâb, to whom he would surrender it when taken. But, when five weeks had passed, and the French flag still floated over the ramparts of Fort St. George, Anwâr sent an army to enforce his claims. Dupleix determined not to surrender the place till he had destroyed the fort; and accordingly gave orders to the French officer in command to hold his ground against the Nawâb's army.

The result was a defeat to the Nawâb's forces, that should have taught him of how little value his army was before a handful of Europeans. (**The Battle of St. Thomé, November 4.**)

M. Paradis (by no means the least of the remarkable Frenchmen who have distinguished themselves in India), with 230 Europeans and 703 native sepoys, put to utter rout the Nawâb's army of 10,000 men, under his son, Mâphuz Khân.

This action (which might have been the French Plassey) made Dupleix for a time the Nawâb's master.

4. Dupleix now utterly disavowed the treaty made by La Bourdonnais, and appointed Paradis Governor of Madras. The English prisoners were sent to Pondicherry. Some escaped to Fort St. David, a fortified town twelve miles south of Pondicherry, bought by the English in 1691, and now become the chief place occupied by the British on the Coromandel coast. Among these latter was Ensign Clive, then in his twenty-first year.

The next thing, of course, was for the French to attack Fort St. David. The attack failed, and was not resumed when opportunity presented itself. Meanwhile, Admiral Griffin, with his fleet, appeared on the coast, threatening Pondicherry, and the English were saved.

The capture of Madras was of no real use to the French.

5. **Peace between Dupleix and the Nawâb.**—Dupleix managed, in the interval, to make peace with the Nawâb, whose assistance did not, however, materially benefit him; for, when the French cause seemed to be desperate, he did not hesitate to forsake their alliance for that of the English.

6. **Defence of Cuddalôr, 1747, 1748.**—We cannot give the details of the defence of Cuddalôr, attacked by Dupleix, in which the skill of the veteran Major Stringer Lawrence, who had recently arrived (January 1748) to command the English forces in India was conspicuous.

7. **The Attack of Ariankûpam.**—Two miles from Pondicherry is a small place called Ariankûpam. This place, fortified by the skill of Paradis, and defended by Law, was attacked by the English, who were at first repulsed, and Lawrence was taken

prisoner. In the end, the French were compelled to abandon it and retire to Pondicherry, where they were now closely besieged.

The first Siege of Pondicherry, 1748—Boscowen.—Admiral Boscowen, grand-nephew of the great Marlborough, was commander-in-chief of the English forces, both naval and military, but the wonderful qualities of Dupleix enabled him for five weeks to baffle every effort of the English leader, who was inexperienced in military operations. Paradis fell early in the siege.

Clive.—It was here that 'Ensign' Clive first gave indications of that wonderful military genius to which British India owes so much.

8. 1748—The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.—The news of the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle now reached India. Madras was to be restored to its English masters, and all things were to revert to the position in which they were before the breaking out of the war in 1744.

PART II.—FROM THE PEACE OF AIX-LA-CHAPELLE TO THE DEFENCE OF ARCOT.

9. Tanjôr Disputes, 1741.—In 1748 Sâhuji, ex-Râja of Tanjôr, who had been dispossessed by Pratâb Sing (his illegitimate brother), applied to the English to restore him to his rightful possessions. He offered, as the price of their assistance, Dêvi Kôta (at the mouth of the Colleroon) and the surrounding territory. They consented, and despatched a body of troops to restore Sâhuji. It was found that the people, who had suffered much under his weak rule, were averse to his return; but, after an unsuccessful attempt, the English notwithstanding sent Major Lawrence to storm Dêvi Kôta. This he effected; but Pratâb Sing now came forward, offered to confirm the captors in the possession of the fort and territory, and to give a pension to the ex-Râja, who retired to Madras.

10. The Disputes in the Dakhan.—On the death of Nizâm-ul-mulk, his eldest son preferred to remain at court, and the succes-

sion of the Sûbâdârship of the Dakhan fell, according to his grandfather's supposed will, to Muzaffir Jung. But Nazîr Jung, the second son, who had already rebelled against his father, seized the treasures, gained over the army, and proclaimed himself Viceroy.

In fact, six uncles of Muzaffir were his rivals.

11. Muzaffir and Chanda Sâhêb.—The dispossessed Muzaffir repaired to Satârâ to seek Mahratta aid, met there with Chandâ Sahêb, and the two wrote to Dupleix, under whose protection Chandâ's wife and family were living in Pondicherry.

Dupleix promptly negotiated Chandâ Sahêb's release, paid the ransom (seven lakhs of rupees), and sent an army of 400 Europeans and 2000 Sepoys towards Ambûr, where Anwâr-ud-dîn (now in his 107th year), at the head of 20,000 troops, was posted. There the French were joined by the released Chandâ (who was burning with impatience to gain for himself a kingdom) with 6000 troops, and by Muzaffir Jung with 30,000.

12. The French Scheme.—Their plan was to defeat and dethrone Anwâr-ud-dîn, seat Chandâ Sahêb on the throne of Arcot, and then, with the combined forces of the Carnatic and the French, to oppose Nazîr Jung, and place Muzaffir on the throne of the Dakhan.

13. The second Battle of Ambûr, 1750.—The plan was successful. The French leader, M. D'Auteuil, was murdered, but his place was taken by the French Clive, Bussy. Anwâr-ud-dîn and his son were killed fighting gallantly; and the whole of his camp, artillery, and stores fell into the hands of Chandâ Sahêb, who took possession of Arcot the next day.

Muzaffir Jung now proclaimed himself Viceroy of the Dakhan, and appointed Chandâ Sahêb Nawâb of the Carnatic.

Both then repaired to Pondicherry to offer their thanks to Dupleix, accompanied with the substantial gift of eighty-one villages around Pondicherry. Eight days were spent in magnificent festivities, in which the tokens of French wealth and power were ostentatiously exhibited to the princely victors.

14. The Rival Nawâbs.—The younger son of Anwâr-ud-dîn, Muhammad Ali, had escaped and fled to Trichinopoly. The question is a difficult one, whether he or Chandâ Sahêb was the rightful Nawâb.

Muhammad Ali sought help from the English governor, Mr. Floyer, who naturally hesitated to engage in so momentous a conflict.

The conquest of Trichinopoly and the capture of Muhammad Ali would have ensured Chandâ Sahêb's final triumph, but he delayed, turned aside to plunder Tanjôr, and allowed himself to be detained there until Nazîr Jung, with a vast army, aided by the Mahrattas and by Major Lawrence, with 600 Englishmen; was in the field.

Chandâ Sahêb, Muzaffir Jung, and their French allies were now compelled to retreat. There was disaffection amongst the French, and distrust everywhere. At Valdâr, in the neighbourhood of Pondicherry, they were routed. Muzaffir was taken prisoner; and Nazîr Jung, now undisputed Viceroy of the Dakhan, took possession of Arcot, and proclaimed Muhammad Ali, Nawâb of the Carnatic.

The French and English have fairly taken their sides. For the moment Dupleix is mortified, while Lawrence and Clive are triumphant. Nazîr Jung is Viceroy, and Muhammad Ali is Nawâb; while Chandâ Sahêb is a fugitive in Pondicherry, and Muzaffir is in irons in his uncle's camp.

Dupleix, nevertheless, maintained a firm attitude, sent envoys to Nazîr Jung, who were instructed to demand all that they could in fact have asked if they had been victors, and to tamper with the fidelity of the chiefs that made up his army. The Nawâbs of Kadapa, Kurnûl, and Savanûr, and other leaders were thus corrupted.

The Battle of the Punâr.—Muhammad Ali, who was timid and irresolute, refused to be guided by his English allies. They in consequence left him, and the result was an overwhelming defeat on the banks of the Punâr, a few miles from Cuddalôr.

15. Bussy.—The storming of Ginjî, to which place the scattered remnant of Muhammad Ali's forces had retired, raised

the reputation of the French to its highest point. It was always considered to be impregnable, strongly entrenched between its three hills, each crowned with a citadel. Bussy stormed it in twenty-four hours.

Nazir Jung, sunk as he was in debauchery, and incapable of pursuing any consistent plan, was startled for the moment into something like vigorous effort. His mind was made up to come to terms with Dupleix, to make any concession, so that the French king-maker would only allow him to remain in a position where he could gratify every desire of his sensual soul.

But, meanwhile, a conspiracy to liberate Muzaffir, and to murder Nazir Jung had been formed. The conspirators were to desert, display the French standard, and fall upon their master. In the midst of the action the traitors displayed the French standard, and Nazir Jung was himself shot through the heart by the Nawâb of Kadapa, and his head laid at the feet of Muzaffir, who had expected a similar fate.

Pondicherry was intoxicated with joy. This was in 1750.

16. The arrogant triumph of Dupleix.—Dupleix followed up his now assured triumph, by ordering the building of a town on the battlefield, the scene of Nazir Jung's assassination, to be called Dupleix-fattih-abâd, *the town of the victory of Dupleix*, with a pillar bearing on its four sides laudatory inscriptions in different languages. The town was scarcely built, when the pillar was, as we shall see, demolished by Clive. Magnificent presents were given to Dupleix and to the French East India Company, while another installation, more imposing than the former, took place in Pondicherry.

Dupleix now desired peace, but peace there could not be while Muhammad Ali was the rival Nawâb of the Carnatic. This difficulty seemed to be removed, when Muhammad himself proposed to acknowledge Chandâ Sahêb, if his father's treasures were given him, and another government assigned to him in the Dakhan.

17. In January 1751, Muzaffir left Pondicherry for Aurungâbâd, which was to be his capital. Bussy was to accompany him, at his own request, with a body of French troops, and to reside

at his court. This arrangement, of course, made the French masters of the Dakhan.

Muzaffir Jung murdered. Salâbat succeeds.—On the march, when near Kadapa, the same three Nawâbs, who were leaders in the conspiracy against Nazîr Jung, conspired, for reasons not clearly ascertainable, to murder Muzaffir, whom they had before saved. A conflict ensued, in which Muzaffir was killed by the Nawâb of Kurnâl. There happened to be in the camp, in irons, another son of Nizâm-ul-mulk, called Salâbat Jung. Bussy lost no time in releasing him and placing him on the throne.

Bussy succeeded in conducting Salâbat in safety to Aurungâbâd, where, on the 29th of June 1751, he was installed as Sûbâdâr of the Dakhan. Bussy remained with him, the master-spirit of his court, and thus a Frenchman, at this period, really ruled the Dakhan.

18. Triumphant position of the French at the beginning of 1751.—The year 1751 thus far seemed destined to be a most glorious year for France, and an equally disgraceful one to England. The vast territory ruled over by the Nizâm was in the power of a French general. The Northern Sirkârs were really French, since that nation possessed a strong force in Masulipatam. Chandâ Sahêb, whom Dupleix had released and elevated to his present dignity, was Nawâb of the Carnatic, while Muhammad Ali had consented to abdicate. The English now held nothing in the Carnatic but Madras, Fort St. David, and Dêvi Kôta, and had lost any reputation they had ever acquired among the natives; they had, in truth, hardly one respectable name to oppose to those of Martin, Dumas, La Bourdonnais, Paradis, Bussy, and Dupleix. Yet, to these the historian of the French in India can add but one other distinguished name, that of the rash and unfortunate Lally, who witnessed the final downfall of French power in India, while Lawrence, Clive, and Hastings, whose career had then scarcely begun, were the first names in a long roll of English heroes, statesmen, and administrators, of unrivalled fame.

This year, 1751, is the critical year in South Indian history.

**PART III.—THE DEFENCE OF ARCOT TO THE DEPARTURE OF
DUPLEIX FROM INDIA. 1751-1754.**

19. The French and English begin the struggle.—Muhammad Ali, though seemingly intent on making terms with Chandâ Sahêb and the French, was secretly urging the English to aid him, and, at length, obtaining a reluctant promise of renewed help from them, he determined to defend himself in Trichinopoly. Dupleix, for his part, resolved to assist Chandâ Sahêb with all his available resources. The English, too, fairly roused at last, made up their minds to support Muhammad Ali to the utmost of their power. Everything turned on the siege of Trichinopoly, and when the siege of that city became a blockade, and the English were dispirited, it must have been taken, if the genius of Lieutenant Robert Clive had not completely changed the aspect of affairs (1751).

The defence of Arcot by Clive, 1751.—He recommended to the Governor of Madras, Mr. Saunders (1751-1755), who was a man of firmness and judgment, a plan which he had devised for relieving Trichinopoly, by carrying the war into the enemy's own country. With 500 men, of whom 200 only were Europeans, and a few light guns, Clive, not more than twenty-five years of age, with officers none of whom had ever been in action, took possession of *Arcot*, put it into a posture of defence, and, though his force was reduced to 320 men and four officers, made good his position for seven weeks against 10,000 men headed by Râja Sahêb, the son of Chandâ Sahêb.

20. Clive.—After this Clive's course was one of continuous victories. On the 25th March 1752, he demolished the town and pillar of Dupleix, a measure of importance, as destroying in the eyes of the natives the impression of French supremacy.

Lawrence.—On the 26th March Lawrence again landed in India.

21. The French siege of Trichinopoly raised.—Muhammad Ali was blockaded in Trichinopoly. Chandâ Sahêb and Law were pressing the siege. Lawrence and Clive were hastening to its relief. Dupleix and Saunders were at Pondicherry and

Madras, making prodigious efforts to aid their respective armies. Bussy, the French Clive, who might have changed the aspects of affairs, was in Aurungâbâd.

After many struggles, Law and the whole besieging force were invested in Srirangam, a small island, on which stands a very famous temple of Vishnu, and within a long cannon-shot of the Fort of Trichinopoly. The result was that, on the 13th June 1752, Law and his force of 785 Frenchmen and 2000 sepoys surrendered, with forty-one pieces of cannon and all military stores, to Lawrence, acting for Muhammad Ali.

22. Death of Chandâ Sahêb, June 11, 1752.—Chandâ Sahêb had given himself up on the 11th to the Tanjôr commander, Manockjî, who stabbed him to the heart, and his head was laid at the feet of his triumphant rival.

23. Summary of events from 1752 to 1754.—We will here briefly sum up the history of events in the Carnatic from this famous 13th June 1752 to the departure of Dupleix from India, October 14, 1754. It is simply the history of unwearied but abortive efforts on his part to retrieve his cause.

The Râja of Tanjôr, Pratâb Sîng, the Râja of Mysôr's General, Nandirâj (with whom was Haidar Naik, the future usurper), and Morârî Râo with his Mahrattas, had hitherto aided Muhammad Ali himself. These Dupleix contrived to detach from the English side. He even tampered with Muhammad Ali himself. He at the same time negotiated for peace with Mr. Saunders, who refused, however, to concede any one of the disputed points.

About this time he received from Salâbat Jung a firman containing his own appointment as Nawâb of the Carnatic and of all south of the Kishna. Thus emboldened, Dupleix nominated Râja Sahêb (son of Chandâ Sahêb) his deputy, and finding him utterly worthless, appointed Murteza Ali, who readily accepted the nomination.

Clive returns to England, 1753.—Clive, after the heroic capture of the forts of *Covelong* and *Chingleput*, accomplished with the most wretched troops, in the most astonishing manner,

left for England in 1753, but Lawrence, feeble in health, yet with undiminished energies as a commander, remained.

The French wrote Dupleix complimentary letters, and made him a Marquis, but sent him no efficient aid.

The Second Siege of Trichinopoly, 1752-1755.—Another siege of Trichinopoly was now undertaken, in which the English under Lawrence were the successful defenders, and this siege, marked by many most gallant conflicts, lasted till the truce preceding the peace of January 1755.

Dupleix recalled.—Meanwhile Dupleix had lost the confidence of the French Government. It must be remembered that, while all this fighting was going on in India, England and France were at peace! Saunders, not without reason, wrote to the English directors, who communicated with the Minister, who, in turn, urged it upon the French Government, that there could not be peace in India, or commercial prosperity, while the restless and ambitious Dupleix was in Pondicherry. M. Godeheu was accordingly sent to replace him. Whatever may have been the errors of this great man, he was now treated with injustice and contumely, which he bore with dignity and firmness. He left India, October 14, 1754, a ruined man, for he had spent more than his all in this desperate struggle.

Death of Dupleix, 1764.—He died broken-hearted, in the utmost poverty, at Paris, November 10, 1764.

PART IV.—1754-1761. FROM THE APPOINTMENT OF GODEHEU TO THE FINAL RUIN OF THE FRENCH CAUSE IN INDIA.

24. Truce between French and English.—A truce was now agreed upon, October 1754, and a peace followed. Neither party was to interfere further in the concerns of the native princes. The possessions of the two countries in India were to be equalised. Muhammad Ali remained Nawâb of the Carnatic. The plans of Dupleix were definitely abandoned. Bussy continued in the Dakhan, and the English supported their Nawâb, but avowed hostilities between the two nations ceased for the present.

This treaty was signed January 11, 1755. Godeheu, like

Cornwallis and Sir George Barlow in 1805, with feverish haste sacrificed all for peace. Saunders, to whom England owes a debt of gratitude for his unwavering firmness in resisting Dupleix, and for the tact and skill with which he conducted all the negotiations, had the merit of bringing about this result so favourable to England.

25. The last struggle, 1757-1761.—Peace did not continue long between France and England. Absolute cessation of military operations there was in fact none. The last struggle of the rival companies, however, began in January 1757, and ended in January 1761. The great names connected with it are Clive, Bussy, Count Lally, Colonel Forde, and Sir Eyre Coote.

The English assisted the Nawâb of the Carnatic, Muhammad Ali (of course the French governor no longer bore the title), to collect his tribute in the south from the refractory poligars. The French, in like manner, interfered to assist the Mysôr regent to collect his dues. Both, in fact, infringed the conditions of the treaty.

26. Clive again in India, 1756.—Meanwhile Clive, now a lieutenant-colonel, had arrived in India a second time, as Governor of Fort St. David. Admiral Watson was sent with a fleet to watch over English interests.

Their first business, however, before proceeding to the Coromandel coast, was to reduce the Fort of Gheriah and dislodge the famous pirate, Tulajî Angria. This was gallantly and effectively done, and thus commerce was freed from a great danger on the western coast.

Clive arrived in Madras in May 1756, and took charge of Fort St. David on the 20th of June, the very day of the Black Hole massacre.

27. Soon after this, events in Bengâl called Clive and Watson thither. Clive never ceased to feel an interest in Madras affairs, and constantly corresponded with his old friends there.

A large French force was sent to Haiderâbâd to assist Bussy. Neither party could do much at this time in the Carnatic.

28. The Seven Years' War breaks out, 1756-1763.—In the

end of 1756 came the long-expected tidings of the breaking out of war between France and England. It was the Seven Years' War, destined to strip France of all territory and power in both the East and West; the war in which Wolff won Quebec and Coote took Pondicherry.

29. Lally.—*Lally* was the man destined by the French Government to drive the English out of India.

He was, however, to see the final overthrow of French power in India. He landed in Pondicherry in April 1758. His powers were all but absolute. It was unfortunate for him that he superseded many of the older officers, and among others, Bussy. Lally knew nothing of India, and heartily despised all of every race who dwelt in it. He found Pondicherry full of corruption. There was neither ability nor honesty among those who should have seconded Lally's efforts. More especially the admiral, the Count d'Aché, failed to co-operate with him effectually. Yet in a few weeks he took Fort St. David. Bussy joined him soon after from the Dakhan, but seemed to have no other desire than to take care of his immense gains. His recall was a death-blow to the French interests in the Dakhan.

30. The Second Siege of Madras, 1758.—After an ill-managed expedition to Tanjôr, it was resolved to attack Madras, which was invested in December 1758.

Mr. (afterwards Lord) Pigot (Governor of Madras, 1756-1763), the veteran Lawrence, Major Calliaud, and others, were the defenders of the city.

The besiegers were ill-disciplined and disaffected; and, in spite of Lally's efforts, no progress was made, until the arrival of Admiral Pocock in the roadstead with the English fleet compelled the French to raise the siege, and to retreat towards Pondicherry in a miserable plight. (February 1759.)

31. Colonel Eyre Coote.—In 1759 fresh troops arrived from England, under Colonel EYRE COOTE, one of the heroes of British Indian warfare. Lawrence had sailed for England in ill-health.

Lally tried to set up Bussâlat Jung, brother of Salâbat Jung.

as Nawâb of the Carnatic ; but this prince had ceased to trust or respect the French, and the scheme failed.

The Battle of Wandiwash.—The great campaign began in December 1759, and the struggle at Wandiwash (*Vandivâsan*) was the decisive battle, which destroyed for ever the idea of a French empire in India.

- Lally and Bussy attacked this town with a force of 1350 European infantry and 150 cavalry. The native troops refused to engage.

Coote hastened to the relief with 1900 Europeans, of whom 80 were cavalry, and 3350 natives.

The French were defeated (January 22, 1760), and never again rallied.

Bussy.—Bussy was taken prisoner. Of him we hear once again. He returned to India in 1783 to fight again against Coote, failed as before, and died in the Carnatic.

32. Pondicherry taken.—Coote's course was now one of continuous success. Chittapet, Arcot, Timery, Dêvi-Kôta, Trincomalee, Alampârva, Kâricâl, Chillumbrum, and Cuddalôr fell successively into his hands ; and in January 1761 Pondicherry surrendered. Lally was sent a prisoner to Madras ; and thus ended the schemes and labours of Martin, Paradis, La Bourdonnais, Dupleix, Dumas, Bussy, and Lally.

Pondicherry was restored to the French in 1763, at the Peace of Paris. Muhammad Alî was acknowledged Nawâb of the Carnatic, and Salâbat Jung, Sûbâdâr of the Dakhan at the same time.

It was again taken (1778) on the breaking out of the war on account of America, and held till the peace of Versailles, 1783. Once more seized in 1793, it was held by the English till the Peace of Amiens in 1802.

Death of Lally.—Lally was himself beheaded in Paris in 1766 ; and the French East India Company ceased to exist in 1769.

CHAPTER VIII

THE FOUNDATION OF BRITISH POWER IN BENGÂL, 1756-1774.

1740-1756—TO THE BLACK-HOLE TRAGEDY.

1. Circumstances that led to British supremacy in the North-East, 1756-1765.—The foundation, or, at least, the great extension of British power in Bengâl is connected (1) with Surâja Daula, the Black Hole, and its attendant cruelties, A.D. 1756; (2) Clive, and the great battle of Plassey, June 23, 1757, which avenged those cruelties, and virtually made England supreme in Hindûstân; and (3) the treaty of Allâhâbâd, by which Shâh Âlam II., in August 1765, made over to the English company the Diwânî of the Sûbâhs of Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa.

2. Ali-wardî Khân and the English, 1740-1756.—When *Ali-wardî Khân* usurped the government of Bengâl, he protected the English. He had to contend repeatedly with the Mahrattas, whom he succeeded in repulsing; but the fertile plains of the north-east were repeatedly laid waste.

He frequently demanded contributions from the English as the price of this protection; but as his exactions were not excessive, and his services in repelling the dreaded Mahrattas were real, they did not much complain.

3. The Calcutta Ditch.—He had permitted them (in 1744) to enclose Calcutta with a moat, called the Mahratta ditch.

4. Death of Ali-wardî Khân.—But in 1756, the year when the memorable Seven Years' War broke out, *Ali-wardî* died, and was

succeeded by his grandson, Surâja Daula, a young Caligula, guilty of the most detestable cruelties, and full of implacable hatred to the English. He, on one occasion, demanded from them the surrender of a fugitive, which they declined; and thus afforded him a pretext for attacking them.

The idea of the wealth of the infidel merchants fired him with an ambition to plunder their factories, one of which was at Cossimbazaar, near to his capital, Mûr-hedâbâd. This he took, and then marched to Calcutta.

5. The Council of Calcutta was unprepared for such an attack. Their means of defence were inadequate. Drake, the governor, was not a Dupleix, scarcely even a Morse, and they had among them no Clive.

The Nawâb before Calcutta.—They first tried to conciliate the Nawâb. They then asked help from the Dutch at Chinsura, and from the French at Chandernagar; but were refused with taunts. The Nawâb began to batter their miserable defences on the 18th June, and soon the unhappy garrison was driven within the walls of the fort.

At nightfall the fatal resolution was taken by the governor of escaping down the river. The women and children were sent on board one of the ships, and Drake put off in the last remaining boat. The soldiers of the garrison, and others who were left behind, tried in vain to find means of escape. The ships dropped down the river to Fulta, where the fugitives took refuge.

Holwell, who was chief among the deserted party, felt himself compelled to negotiate; and the army of the Nawâb marched in. The Nawâb summoned Mr. Holwell before him, and reproached him with defending the place against the rightful ruler of Bengâl; but assured him no harm should be done to the prisoners.

6. **The Black Hole, 1756**—The first great Tragedy.—That evening, however, the whole of them, 146 in number, were crammed into a wretched dungeon (ever since called the 'Black Hole'), eighteen feet square, with two small apertures: a place which would have been an oppressively confined prison for one

person. This night, the horrors of which no pen can describe, or mind adequately conceive, may be considered an era in Indian history. Scenes of equal atrocity were enacted in the Sepoy mutinies a century after. These are the things that fix the fate of empires.

In the morning twenty-three only were found alive, and they were a fearful spectacle.

The Nawâb is said to have been free from the guilt of ordering this frightful wholesale murder, but he evidently did not regret it. His great anxiety was to find the treasures which he imagined the English had concealed.

1756-1757. THE BLACK-HOLE TRAGEDY TO PLASSEY.

7. The avengers.—These sad tidings soon reached Madras, where *Clive* and *Watson*, just returned from the destruction of Gheriah, were soon ready to sail to avenge the cruel injury.

Clive was the Governor of Fort St. David.

Nine hundred English Infantry and 1500 sepoy, full of spirit, and devotedly attached to their leaders, constituted the army, which was destined to effect a mighty revolution in India.

It was the middle of December before the expedition reached the Hûgli.

Budge-Budge.—No time was then lost. Budge-Budge was taken, Calcutta re-occupied, and the town of Hûgli stormed. At Budge-Budge Hastings fought as a volunteer.

There he and Clive first met.

Hûgli stormed. Coote.—The storming of Hûgli was the work of a young captain, Eyre Coote. Here then are four historic names associated at this memorable crisis: CLIVE, WATSON, COOTE, and HASTINGS. To these must be added those of FORDE, then a major in a king's regiment, and of CARNAC.

8. Surâja.—Surâja Daula at length began to awake from his dream of fancied security. He knew something of the wars in the Carnatic, of Arcot, and of Gheriah, and now this same Clive was in Calcutta!

Calcutta retaken.—An obstinate engagement took place, and the Nawâb's attacks were repelled at every point. Calcutta

was retaken January 2, 1757. Negotiations followed, and a hollow peace was made. The English were allowed to assume their old position, and *vengeance was postponed*.

Watson disapproved. Clive, who had now become a diplomatist, unwillingly consented, from political considerations, to sign the treaty. (February 9, 1757.)

9. There was now, strange to say, pretended peace between the English and the author of the horrors of the Black Hole.

War with France—The French settlement taken, May 1757.—Meanwhile in Europe the Seven Years' War had begun, and Watson and others wished to attack the French settlement of Chandernagar. Clive at first wished for neutrality in India. The Nawâb was, however, asked for permission to attack the French, but he refused, and even aided them with arms and money. In defiance of his threats, the English forces under Clive attacked the place, and Watson co-operated with the fleet.

Chandernagar was thus taken in May 1757.

10. **The perfidy of Surâja Daula, 1756.**—The peace between the Nawâb and the English was not real, and could not be lasting. The latter began to feel their power, and the former, full of hatred, fear, and distrust, acted in the most violent and inconsistent manner. He intrigued with Bussy, who was at Cuttack in the Northern Sirkârs (not more than 200 miles from Calcutta), which had just been ceded to France.

He at the same time sent conciliatory messages, and even money, to the Council at Calcutta.

And now a formidable confederacy was formed against him. The plotters were Râyduhh, his treasurer; Mîr Jaffîr, the commander of his troops; Jagat Seid, the richest banker in India; with Mr. Watt, the English Resident at Mûrshedâbâd; and the Council at Calcutta.

Omichand.—A Bengâlî named Omichand was the agent employed to transact the business between the English and the Nawâb.

The plan of the conspirators was this. Surâja was to be deposed, the British co-operating with Mîr Jaffîr. The most ample and exclusive privileges were to be granted to the

English, and the fullest compensation for their losses, while a large sum was to be distributed among the members of the English Secret Committee.

A difficulty here arose. Omichand, at the last moment, threatened to disclose the whole, unless a sum of 3,000,000 rupees was guaranteed to himself. To satisfy him it was arranged that a clause should be inserted in the agreement, to be signed by Mir Jaffir and the members of the English Committee, relating to his claims.

But Clive and his fellow-conspirators condescended to cheat their wily agent. Two treaties were prepared, one on white paper, the other on red. In the latter Omichand's claims were guaranteed, while in the other no mention was made of them. The white was the real treaty. The fictitious one was shown to Omichand, and he was satisfied. Admiral Watson had refused to be a party to this deceit, and his signature was forged.

11. Plassey, 1757.—All was now ready, and Clive wrote a peremptory letter to the Nawâb, demanding satisfaction for all injuries, and stating that the British army would wait upon him for an answer. The Nawâb instantly put his army in motion, and the hostile armies met on the field of PLASSEY. The Nawâb had 50,000 infantry, 18,000 cavalry, and an enormous train of artillery, while Clive had 650 European infantry, 150 gunners, 2100 Sepoys, a few Portuguese, and 10 pieces of artillery.

Mir Jaffir.—Meanwhile Mir Jaffir was terrified by the approaching crisis, and ceased to communicate with Clive. The wisdom of attacking the Nawâb, with such fearful odds against them, seemed to Clive's officers to be doubtful, and, in a council of war (the only one Clive ever assembled), thirteen voted against fighting the enemy, and but seven for it. In the minority was Coote.

Clive dismissed the council, took a solitary walk in a grove hard by, and decided in his own mind that the attack must be made *now or never*, and that it should be made *now*. The next morning he crossed the river, and fought the battle of Plassey on the 23rd June 1757. The victory was immediate and

decisive, and the loss on the side of the English was only 22 killed and 50 wounded.

The First Bengâl Revolution, 1757.—Surâja fled. Mîr Jâffir, now that victory was assured, joined Clive, who did not condescend to notice his vacillation, but saluted him Nawâb of Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa. Thus Clive did in Bengâl what Dupleix had done in the Carnatic.

The new Nawâb was, however, but a tool in the hands of those who had made and could unmake him.

12. Death of Surâja Daula, 1757.—Surâja was soon seized, having been betrayed by a man whom he had wronged, and brought before Jâffir, whose son Mîrân caused him to be put to death. The poor victim had not completed his twentieth year, and had not been on the throne fifteen months. •

13. 'Clive's Fund.'—And now came the division of the spoil. Clive contented himself with between two and three hundred thousand pounds, besides an estate received at a later date, of which immense wealth a great part went, by his generous gift, to form what is called 'Lord Clive's fund,' and the proceeds were applied from the first to the relief of invalids in the service.

14. What are called the twenty-four Pergunnahs (= *sub-districts*) were then given to the Company as a Zamîndâry. The grant is dated December 20, 1757. They comprised an area of about 1200 square miles.

1757-1760. CLIVE'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION.

15. Clive.—Clive was now virtually ruler of these rich provinces. He was made Governor of the Company's settlements in Bengâl, and remained at the head of affairs till 1760.

16. Shâh Âlam II. invades the Nawâb's dominions, 1759.—A great danger threatened the new Nawâb in 1759. Clive too was placed in a dilemma. It was thus. Poor Âlamgîr II. was in the hands of Ghâzi-ud-dîn IV., who at last murdered him. His son, Âli Gôhar (commonly styled the Shâhzâda or Prince), afterwards the unfortunate Shâh Âlam II. (by which name we

shall call him), escaped from Delhi, crossed the *Karmandsa* (which divides Oudh from Bahâr), at the very time (November 1759) of his father's murder, the news of which he did not receive for a month.

He then assumed the title of emperor, appointed Shuja-ud-daula, Viceroy of Oudh, his Vazîr, and, with Nazîb Khân as his commander-in-chief, proceeded to take possession of the eastern districts. The Governor of Patna was a Hindû, Râm Nârâyan, who, being defeated by the imperial army, threw himself into Patna.

The First Battle of Patna, 1760.—Clive (thus involved in a necessary rebellion against the great Mogul!) wrote to the trembling Mîr Jaffîr and to Râm Nârâyan to re-assure them; and Colonel Calliaud, marching promptly to the relief of Patna, defeated the imperial and Oudh forces in February and April 1760, and thus saved the Nawâb for the time. Captain Knox, another distinguished officer, gained a splendid victory over the Râja of Pûrnia, who was in rebellion. Shâh Âlam now wrote to Clive, who sent him a sum of money, on condition that he should evacuate the province of Bahâr, which he did. Thus relieved, Mîr Jaffîr testified his gratitude by bestowing on Clive, as a Jâghîr, the rent due by the Company for the villages round Calcutta.

17. Two other important achievements conclude this portion of Clive's history.

(1.) **The Northern Sirkârs.**—The *Northern Sirkârs* were at this period in the hands of the French, but Bussy had been recalled by Lally. Clive sent an expedition under Colonel Forde in 1759, which drove the French out. He retained for the English only Masûlipatam. The battle of Peddapûr, near Râjamandri, and the dashing capture of Masûlipatam, with the French leader in it, are among the most glorious exploits of Anglo-Indian warfare. •

(2.) The fickle Nawâb now began to intrigue with the Dutch, for his English friends were so powerful that he dreaded their turning against him. The Dutch in Chinsura wrote to their chief at Batavia, and it was arranged that a Dutch armament

should attack Calcutta. Clive got intelligence of the intrigue, and, though England was at peace with Holland, attacked the Dutch by sea and land, defeated them utterly, and laid siege to Chinsura. The Dutch, thoroughly humbled, agreed to the terms Clive imposed upon them, and Mir Jaffir's intrigues in that quarter were at an end.

Clive now sailed for England the second time, 1760.

1761-1765—ADMINISTRATION OF VANSITTART AND SPENCER.

18. This was a most eventful period in Indian history. The French power in India was at this period utterly broken by Coote, and soon after the Mahrattas sustained the crushing defeat from which they never fully recovered.

Mr. Vansittart, 1760-1765.—But in these stirring times Mr. Vansittart, an utterly incompetent person, though honest, was acting as Clive's successor in Bengâl. There were quarrels between him and his Council; and, till Clive's return in 1765, nothing can be more painful than the annals of the administration.

19. **Mir Kâsim.**—After the death of his son, Mirwan, the affairs of Mir Jaffir became worse and worse; and he at length sent his son-in-law, Mir Kâsim, to Calcutta to arrange his pecuniary matters. Mr. Vansittart and his Council, being struck with the ability of Mir Kâsim, resolved to dethrone the Nawâb Nazîm, and to put his son-in-law in his place. The Nawâb was hopelessly in arrears in his payments to his British allies, was madly extravagant in his expenditure, and evidently looked with no favour upon those by whose hands he had been elevated.

Mir Jaffir was induced to resign, and to take up his abode in Calcutta; while Mir Kâsim was installed (27th September 1760). The latter ceded to the English the three provinces of Midnâpûr, Chittagong, and Burdwân as the price of his elevation.

• **The Second Bengâl Revolution, 1760.**—Thus, for the second time in four years, had the British effected a revolution in Mûrshedâbâd.

The real object of this transaction was to enrich the members of the Bengál Government. Against every unjust measure of this period Mr. Vansittart and Mr. Hastings, then a young civilian, protested ; but in vain.

20. Mír Kâsim began with great energy to carry out reforms. He reduced expenditure, paid off his English friends, and, disgusted with his position, resolved to shake off their yoke ; for which purpose he removed his capital to Monghyr, and there quietly gathered together and disciplined his army. This he did with surprising judgment and skill.

21. **Shâh Âlam II., 1761—The second Battle of Patna.**—At this time Shâh Âlam II., who dared not return to his capital, was hovering about Bahâr with a lawless host. Colonel Carnac attacked and dispersed them, and Law, the Frenchman (who had escaped from Chandernagar, and broken his parole), with his band was taken prisoner ; but, to the surprise of the natives, was treated by the English with distinguished courtesy. The Emperor himself was persuaded by Colonel Carnac to join him, and accompany him to Patna, where Mír Kâsim was induced to pay him homage ; and was, in consequence, formally invested by the Emperor with the Sûbâdârship of Bengál, Bahâr, and Orissa.

22. Mír Kâsim's conduct at this time was, on the whole, vigorous and just ; but he was cruel in his treatment of Râm Nârâyan, the Governor of Patna, whom he despoiled ; and Mr. Vansittart's failure to protect this unfortunate governor is one of the worst features in his administration.

The Nawâb and the Calcutta Council.—A quarrel between the Nawâb and the Calcutta Council soon arose. The cause was the immunity from the payment of transit duties claimed by the servants of the Company. This freedom had been formerly granted by imperial firman to the Company itself. It was now grossly abused. All the servants of the Company traded largely on their own private account, and they claimed freedom from the payment of all inland duties, not only for themselves, but for their servants and dependants also. Every native, in fact,

by hoisting the English flag could now evade the payment of all duties. The Nawáb was thus defrauded of his revenues, his servants were insulted, and the trade of the country was thrown into confusion.

After attempts at a compromise, in which Mr. Vansittart was thwarted by the cupidity of the other members of Council, the Nawáb, in desperation, resolved to put his subjects and the English upon an equal footing by abolishing all transit dues throughout his dominions.

23. Mr. Ellis seized.—War ensued. Some English boats were stopped and examined by the Nawáb's officers at Patna. Mr. Ellis, the Resident, then rashly began hostilities, and seized the city of Patna; but his European soldiers got drunk, and the native commandant recaptured the city. Mr. Ellis and the other Englishmen were taken prisoners, and the Nawáb at once ordered every Englishman in his dominions to be seized.

24. War with Mir Kâsim, 1763.—The Calcutta Council was now resolved to dethrone Mir Kâsim, and reinstate Mir Jaffir, who was seventy-two years old, and afflicted with leprosy. This was done by proclamation. (**July 7, 1763.**) This was the third Bengál revolution. A severe struggle ensued, and especially at Gheriah a battle was fought, which lasted for four hours. In this the late Nawáb's well-trained and disciplined troops showed most determined bravery, and were with difficulty overcome. This was in August 1763. Major Adams commanded. The Nawáb's forces amounted to 28,000 men; the English had only 3000. Monghyr was soon taken, and the Nawáb had only Patna.

25. The Massacre of Patna, 1763—The second great Tragedy.
 --Hitherto our sympathies have been with the Nawáb, whose conduct was spirited though his cause was hopeless; but the *Massacre of Patna*, the second great tragedy in British Indian history, places him in the list of men whose names history preserves only to hand down to perpetual infamy.

He cast Râm Nârâyan into the river with weights round his

neck. The great bankers, the Seits, friends of the English, were thrown from one of the bastions into the river.

The Nawâb threatened that he would murder every European the moment the troops advanced on Patna. The army moved on to the attack, and the ferocious Nawâb fulfilled his threat. Walter Raymond, a German, who had been a sergeant in the French service, and now held a commission in the Nawâb's army under the name of *Sumru* (a name since notorious enough, and now changed to *Sombre*) volunteered to do the bloody deed. He led a file of soldiers to the house, fired on them unarmed through the venetian windows, and soon forty-eight Englishmen (Mr. Ellis among them), and one hundred soldiers, were lying in their blood on the floor.

The English take Patna.—Patna was taken (November 6, 1763), after a vigorous resistance; and Mîr Kâsim fled to Shuja Daula, Nawâb of Oudh, where the fugitive emperor still lingered.

These three now advanced against the English army, and a campaign began, which is one of the most glorious in the British annals. The Nawâb of Oudh had fought at Pânipat in 1761, under Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî, the Emperor was the descendant of Teimûr, and Mîr Kâsim had shown himself resolute and daring. Their attack upon Patna was repulsed, and their army finally took up its position between Buxâr and the Sôn.

26. The First Sepoy Mutiny, 1764.—And now took place the first *Sepoy* mutiny in the Bengâl army. The last and greatest, in 1857, led to the dissolution of that army, and the transfer of British India to the direct government of the Crown. Major Munro acted with firmness. A whole battalion attempted to desert to the enemy, but they were brought back, and twenty men blown away from guns. This firmness and promptitude at once crushed the mutiny.

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27. The Battle of Buxâr.—In October 1764, Munro led his troops against the Nawâb Vazîr, who was still encamped at *Buxâr*, with an army of 50,000 men. He was routed, and 160 pieces of cannon taken. The consequences of this victory were

very great :—(1) The Nawâb of Oudh, long master of the empire, was humbled ; (2) the English were thus made supreme in Hindûstân ; (3) the Emperor himself (**Shâh Âlam II.**) came to the British camp, and opened a negotiation with the Council at Calcutta for his restoration to the throne. It was reserved for Clive to reap the full fruits of this victory.

28. The Nawâb of Oudh, Shuja-ud-Daula, retreated towards Delhi, and obtained assistance from the Mahrattas under Mulhâr Râo Holkâr, and the infamous Ghâzi-ud-dîn. But Sir R. Fletcher took Allâhâbâd ; Carnac, advancing to Kalpi, dispersed the Nawâb's army ; and the latter was obliged to throw himself upon the mercy of his conquerors. The great central plain of India was now completely in the power of England.

29. Death of Mîr Jaffîr.—The reinstated Mîr Jaffîr died in January 1765. The Calcutta Council, the record of whose proceedings for five years fills our minds with shame and disgust, had made enormous demands of money from him, and it appears he died partly of vexation. His son, a youth of twenty, Najîm-ud-Daula, was put on the throne ; the members of the Council received large and undeserved presents ; and the control of the country was virtually in their hands.

'Nuncomar.'—A minister called Muhammad Reza Khân was appointed, whilst the Nawâb wished to place in that office a most faithless and profligate man, whose name was Nand Kumâr. Râja Shitâb Râi was assistant to the minister. They were both tried in 1772, on charges of corruption, but acquitted.

30. Lord Clive comes to India a third time, 1765.—The Directors of the East India Company, aware of the profligacy of their servants, and alarmed at the state of affairs, now solicited Clive to return to India the third time, with full powers, which he had demanded, 3d May 1765. Mîr Kâsim had been expelled from Bengâl. The Emperor Shâh Âlam II. was a suppliant in the British camp at Allâhâbâd. The Nawâb of Oudh, stripped of everything, waited his doom. The army and its leaders had covered themselves with glory ; but the Council,

with Mr. Spencer (the successor of Vansittart) at their head, had plunged into the lowest gulf of infamy.

CLIVE'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION, 1765-1767.

31. Clive's Reforms.—Clive's first measure on his return was to enforce the orders of the Directors forbidding the receipt of presents by their servants. He made all Government officers sign covenants binding themselves to obey this rule.

He then proceeded to Allâhâbâd. The result of his negotiations was :—

(1) The Nawâb of Oudh was restored as an ally of England ;

(2) Corah and Allâhâbâd were given to the Emperor ; and

(3) **Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa granted to the Company, August 12th, 1765.** Shâh ÂLAM II., the descendant of Bâber, granted to the Company the *Diwânî* or virtual sovereignty of Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa, for which he was to receive a tribute of twenty-six lakhs a year ; while fifty lakhs a year were to be paid to the Nawâb, in whose name the government was still conducted. This was effected on the 12th August 1765.

The Nawâb Nazîm of Bengâl was soon induced to retire on an allowance or pension of forty-two lakhs. This may be called the **FOURTH BENGÂL REVOLUTION.**

32. The memorable Ten Months.—Thus in ten months (October 1764 to August 1765) had the English overthrown all the powers of Hindûstân ; and advanced from the position of a trading Company to the assumption of a virtually independent sovereignty.

This period, from the battle of Buxâr to the treaty of Allâhâbâd, is ever memorable in English annals. The year 1765 is an era in British Indian history.

The only other powers of note in India at this time were the Mahrattas, Haidar, and the Nizâm of Haiderabad.

33. Clive's further Reforms.—Clive had now to carry out further reforms. The army was accustomed to what was called *double batta* when on the field. This was nominally an allowance of subsistence-money, but the amount was unreasonably great ; in the case of a captain it amounted to an increase in his pay of

1000 rupees a month. Clive was instructed to stop this anomalous system, but he was met by a combination of the European officers, which, in fact, was a mutiny. Two hundred officers agreed to resign in a single day; and, as the Mahrattas were advancing, they thought themselves necessary to the State.

Clive accepted each resignation, and put the ex-officer in immediate arrest, while he sent to Madras for every available man. Even Sepoys were employed in coercing their European officers. Clive's firmness subdued the mutiny in a fortnight. This was a victory as important as Plassey: he thus saved the dominion which he had founded.

34. Trading put down.—Clive's next contest was with the whole services, the members of which universally were engaged in trade, which their position made especially lucrative, to the injury of their character, as it prevented them from doing their duty as public servants. They were now absolutely forbidden to engage in any species of trade, and a compensation was granted; but the question of official salaries was not actually settled till the time of Lord Cornwallis.

35. Clive leaves India for the last time, 1767.—Clive left India for the last time in 1767, a poorer man than he was when he returned to it in 1765.

He was received in England with great honour; but his reforms had raised up for him a host of enemies. Nor had his course, as we have seen, been uniformly honest and incorrupt. All whom he had punished, or whose corrupt schemes he had thwarted, now leagued against him. The Court of Directors did not support him, as it ought to have done; but when it was proposed to censure him in Parliament, a counter-resolution was passed, 'that he had rendered meritorious services to his country.'

His death, Nov. 22, 1774.—He died in 1774, ten years after Dupleix.

1767-1772. VERELST AND CARTIER.

- **36. Mr. Verelst, Mr. Cartier, 1767-1772.**—From 1767 to 1772, Mr. Verelst and Mr. Cartier were successively Governors of

Bengâl. The events of this period are chiefly connected with Mahratta and Mysôr history.

The curse of Bengâl was the *double government*, which has been called Clive's 'masked administration.' The government was nominally conducted by the Nawâb's servants; while the European officials vied with them in making haste to become rich by every species of corruption. The governor in vain strove to stem the torrent. It was a sad period: the Muhammadan Government had been destroyed; and no vigorous English rule had been substituted. All the evils peculiar to a great crisis were felt.

The constitution of the Home Government of India was equally vicious. The Directors were appointed but for one year, and their chief anxiety was to make the most of their patronage. It was a period of unblushing jobbery and corruption.

To add to the general affliction, famine, deadly fever, and small-pox took off 35 per cent. of the inhabitants of Bengâl during the years from 1769-1771. It is estimated that ten millions of human beings perished in that awful visitation, which in addition ruined a great proportion of the landed aristocracy of Lower Bengâl.

1772-1774. HASTINGS GOVERNOR OF BENGÂL.

37. The Double Government destroyed, 1772.—The directors resolved in 1772 to abolish the double government, and to assume the direct management, through their own servants, of the revenue of Bengâl. WARREN HASTINGS was appointed Governor of Bengâl to carry out this sweeping measure. He had to arrange the details of the change from a mercantile firm to a sovereign dominion.

Warren Hastings.—Warren Hastings was born in 1732, seven years after Clive; landed in India in 1750 as a civilian; was taken prisoner at Cossimbazaar just before the Black Hole tragedy took place; joined the fugitives at Fulta; fought as a volunteer at Budge-Budge; was sent by Clive, who discerned his abilities, as Resident to Mûrshedâbâd after the battle

of Plassey; was appointed member of Council at Calcutta in 1760, when he supported Mr. Vansittart against his corrupt Council; and returned to England in 1764. There he was summoned to give evidence before the House of Commons; and his evidence displayed such vigour and breadth of view, that his reputation was made at once; and he was appointed second in Council at Madras in 1768.

In 1772 he was sent as Governor (or President) to Calcutta, which now became the seat of Government instead of Mûrshedâbâd. Every arrangement for the constitution of new courts of civil and criminal justice was made by Hastings, and a code was drawn up by him within six months.

38. The Treaty of Benâres, 1773.—An account of the affairs connected with the treaty of Benâres, made between Hastings and the Vazîr of Oudh, will close this part of the history of British India.

The Mahrattas crossed the Ganges on their return home in 1773; and the Vazîr of Oudh asserted that the Rohillas had offered him forty lakhs of rupees to defend them from those invaders, and that now they denied the debt.

Hastings believed and acted upon this statement. He proceeded to Benâres (in August 1773) to meet the Vazîr; and a compact was made, that the latter should pay to the English Government forty lakhs of rupees, and that Hastings should lend an auxiliary force to the Vazîr to expel the Rohillas.

The Rohilla War, 1774. The Battle of Râmpur.—This was carried out in April 1774. Hafiz Rahmat, the Rohilla chief, who had 40,000 men under his banner, was defeated by Colonel Champion and slain, with 2000 of his men.

These Afghân strangers, 20,000 in number, now abandoned their usurped possessions, which still bear the name of Rohilkhand; and the province, with its million of Hindûs, came under the power of the Vazîr of Oudh.

This was the famous Rohilla war. Hastings was violently attacked for sending British troops as mercenaries to aid the Vazîr in expelling the intruders.

39. The Regulating Act, 1773.—The Regulating Act was passed in 1773; but the judges of the Supreme Court and the new members of Council did not arrive in Calcutta till October 1774. Then Warren Hastings became the first Governor-General of British India.

CHAPTER IX

THE GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF BRITISH INDIA, FROM A.D. 1774 TO THE PRESENT TIME.

WARREN HASTINGS, 1774-1785.

1. **Previous to 1774.** - There was, as we have seen, no Governor-General of British India till 1774. Before that date the Governments of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay were independent of one another, and were literally *presidencies*.

2. **The Regulating Act, 1773.**—The proprietors and directors of the East India Company were essentially the partners and managers of a mercantile establishment, and nothing could console them for insufficient dividends. The glorious successes of Clive, their recent acquisition of territory and influence, and the humiliation of their French rivals, could not compensate them for an empty treasury.

There were mutual jealousies. The Ministers and Parliament feared that the Company would, in consequence of recent events, acquire too much influence. The nation in general, on the other hand, feared that, with the patronage of the East Indian Government in their hands, the ministers would become too strong. The result was a compromise ; and the charter of the Company was renewed, some important changes being made in its constitution, with the added provisions that :—

(1) £400,000 a year should be paid by the Company to the nation ;

(2) That, while Madras and Bombay retained their subordinate Governors and Councils, the Governor of Calcutta, Hastings, should become Governor-General, on a salary of £25,000 a year ;

and, assisted by a Council, should be supreme over all the British possessions in India; and,

(3) That a Supreme Court of Judicature, consisting of a Chief Justice and three other judges, should be established in Calcutta.

Many other minor reforms were made at the same time.

The great mistake in the Regulating Act was that the four members of the Governor-General's Council were invested with equal authority in Council with himself. The Governor-General was, in fact, made the mere President of a Committee.

3. The new Council.—Warren Hastings accordingly became Governor-General, with his Council of Four, in October 1774. He held this high office for eleven years. His councillors themselves were badly selected. They were Colonel Monson, General Clavering, Mr. Francis (afterwards Sir Philip Francis, the generally supposed author of *The Letters of Junius*), and Mr. Barwell.

The last, who had been long in India, invariably supported Mr. Hastings. The other three as pertinaciously opposed him; and as the votes of the majority decided every matter, the new Governor-General found himself shorn of all his power by his accession of dignity. The majority of the Council were, moreover, ignorant of India, and full of eager animosity to Hastings, while Francis has seldom been surpassed in the faculty of energetic hatred.

Monson died in September 1776, and Clavering in August 1777. Sir Eyre Coote succeeded the latter.

Hastings struggled against his opponents with wonderful firmness, and with occasional errors in judgment, till the end of 1780, when Francis left the country.

4. The affairs of Oudh first engaged the attention of the new Council; and the chief aim of the majority was to lower Hastings in the eyes of the people. The Vazîr was compelled to make over the Zamîndâry of Benâres to the English; and Cheyte Singh, its Zamîndâr, was elevated to the rank of Râja, and placed on the footstool of a feudatory prince, paying a tribute to the Company of twenty-two and a half lakhs a year.

The Oudh Begums.—The affairs of the 'Begums' of Oudh

have since become too notorious to be omitted here. The Nawâb Vazîr, Shuja-ud-daula, died in 1775. His widow and mother, the 'Begums,' claimed by virtue of a supposed will of the late Nawâb the whole of the treasure, two millions of rupees, which was heaped up in the vaults of the Zenâna. The acknowledgment of this preposterous claim Mr. Hastings opposed, but in vain. The young Nawâb was thus left, on his accession, with no money, an army to support, and a heavy debt to the English Government.

5. Nand Kumâr.—Charges were soon poured in against Mr. Hastings by men who regarded his power and influence as extinct. The chief of the accusers was Nand Kumâr, a man infamous for his treachery and perfidy.

While this was going on, Nand Kumâr had been arrested on a charge of forgery, at the suit of an eminent native merchant.

He was tried on this charge in the new Supreme Court, the jury found him guilty, and he was sentenced to be hanged.

This execution of a Brâhman created a profound sensation, and has been made a matter of accusation against Hastings. For this there is not the shadow of reason. Sir Elijah Impey, the Chief Justice, but administered the existing law, which has since been altered. There was undue severity, but no injustice.

Mr. Francis and his two associates had the power, if they had willed it so, to suspend the execution, and to refer the matter to England, but they declined to interfere. There is not, and there never was, the slightest evidence to connect Mr. Hastings, in any way, with the death of this atrocious miscreant.

6. The First Mahratta War.—The connection of Hastings with Mahratta politics must be studied in chap. v. (from the Treaty of Sûrat, in 1775, to the Treaty of Salbâi, in 1782).

7. He saves the Carnatic.—Hastings's conduct in aiding the Madras Presidency in its struggles with Haidar, from 1780 to his own departure from India, contrasts wonderfully with that

of the Governors of Madras during the same period (comp. ch. xii.). He was the only man of his day that saw the important transactions of the time in their true proportions.

8. Madras affairs at this period require some notice.

Madras.—(1.) In 1773 the Madras Government aided the Nawâb of Ârcot, Muhammad Ali, in an iniquitous war against Tanjôr. The Court of Directors condemned this, and removed the President, Mr. Winch (1775).

(2.) Lord Pigot succeeded (1775-1776). As a civilian he had been in India forty years, had amassed a colossal fortune, and been created an Irish peer. He restored the Tanjôr Râja in spite of the Nawâb's entreaties and offered bribes. He afterwards had great disputes with his Council, who deposed and imprisoned him. The Court of Directors restored him, but he died in April 1777, while in confinement.

(3.) Sir T. Rumbold, a Bengâl civilian, succeeded. Basâlat Jung, brother of the Nizâm, now made over the Guntûr Sirkâr to the English, and dismissed his French troops, whom Haidar at once employed.

Rumbold's character was long considered to have suffered by certain transactions in his government, but he has been fully vindicated.

(4.) A Mr. Whitehill succeeded, and was removed by Hastings (1780-1781).

(5.) **Lord Macartney.**—Then came Lord Macartney's (on the whole) able and energetic government (1781-1785).

His opposition to Hastings, and the Treaty of Mangalore, detract from his reputation.

9. Failure of Justice in Bengâl.—We now return to Bengâl affairs. The judges of the Supreme Court established in Calcutta, in striving to 'protect natives from oppression, and to give India the benefit of English law,' committed many great mistakes.

They interfered between the Zamîndârs and their Râyats. Their attorneys stirred up strife everywhere. Everything was to be brought under the jurisdiction of the 'Supreme Court.'

They applied English ideas to Indian affairs in an indiscriminating spirit.

Hastings interfered, as far as he could, to protect the land-holders from this vexatious interference, and Parliament was petitioned for a change of system ; but meanwhile a remedy was discovered.

Sir Elijah Impey.—It was this : there was a Court of Appeal in Calcutta, called the *Sudder Diwānī Adālut*. In this the Governor-General himself and his Council had been appointed to preside. This they could not do, and Hastings offered the appointment of Chief Judge of the Court to Sir Elijah Impey, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. This reconciled all parties, and enabled Impey to turn his attention to the subject of the administration of justice according to such forms as might suit the greater simplicity of native habits.

This, though vehemently decried, and at length disallowed by the Court of Directors at the time, was the system restored at the renewal of the charter in 1853, by the amalgamation of the Supreme Courts in each Presidency with the Company's old Courts of Appeal. The Chief Justice now directs the whole judicial system in each government, as Hastings desired.

10. His Financial Difficulties.—Upon Hastings devolved the imperious necessity of providing the money to carry on the various wars which in 1780 were raging in India. Seldom has a heavier burden rested on the shoulders of one resolute man ; but he bore it nobly, and without flinching.

The Mysoreans, the French, the Dutch, and the Mahrattas were in the field against the English at once. The difficulty of the crisis was very great ; but Hastings and his veteran general, Sir Eyre Coote, were equal to any emergency.

To provide for the expenses of these wars was the onerous duty of Hastings. He has incurred much odium by the means he took to fulfil this pressing duty.

The Disturbance in Benâres.—(1.) He demanded from Cheyte Singh (whose Zamindâry of Benâres, transferred to the English in 1775, was now held by him as a feudatory or dependent noble) an additional tribute in men and money, in aid of his benefactors and superiors.

The requisition was a just one ; but the Râja (or Zamîndâr) ungratefully evaded compliance with the demand, and Hastings proceeded to Benâres for the purpose of enforcing it, as well as of meeting the vakil of the Râja of Berâr.

The Râja's army of 20,000 men was defeated, and Bijghur, his hiding-place, was taken. The troops, however, seized and divided the treasure found in the fortress.

Cheyte Singh escaped to Gwâliôr, where he lived for twenty-nine years. His nephew was placed on the throne.

11. The Begums of Oudh, 1781.—(2.) More doubtful is the treatment of the Begums of Oudh. The young Nawâb Vazîr of Oudh represented his inability to pay his dues to the Company, and asked permission to seize the treasures which the Begums had wrongfully appropriated. Charges were, moreover, made against these ladies of abetting Cheyte Singh, and supplying him with men and money. Hastings consented. The Begums were compelled to give up seventy-six lakhs of rupees, which were paid over to the Company. The whole affair was unjustifiable.

12. Discontent of the East India Company.—The Court of Directors condemned these measures, and Hastings signified his intention of retiring. He proceeded in 1784 to Lucknow, when the Jâghirs of the Begums were restored ; addressed letters to all the chiefs and princes of India, taking leave of them ; and, after putting everything into perfect order, resigned with dignity a trust which he had held, under different titles, for thirteen years. He left India finally in February 1785.

13. Hastings in England.—In England, Hastings was received with favour by the king, the ministry, and the directors. But Pitt had a prejudice against him. Francis, his rancorous foe, was now in Parliament. The renowned orator, Burke, and the Whig party in general, combined against him, and it was resolved to impeach him. His trial before the Lords began, with extraordinary formalities and pomp, on the 13th February 1788, and was protracted till the 23rd April 1795, when he was completely and honourably acquitted on every charge. The

trial cost him £100,000. Though thus reduced to comparative poverty, he lived peaceably at Daylesford till his death in 1818. Once only did he again appear in public, and then he was called to give (in 1813) evidence before the House of Commons regarding Indian affairs. On that occasion the whole assembly stood up and uncovered to do him honour.

14. Character of Hastings.—Hastings, ‘the Chatham of the East,’ will always rank among the ablest, most resolute, and most disinterested administrators the world has ever seen. He was pre-eminently a far-seeing politician, labouring calmly and unceasingly to lay the foundations of an empire, where men around him cared only for their own immediate profit, or for thwarting him.

Hastings was the enlightened patron of Oriental learning.

The *Asiatic Society* was established in Calcutta in 1784 under his auspices.

Sir William Jones, Carey, Wilkins, Forster, and Colebrooke, were the illustrious men who first made Sanskrit literature accessible to English scholars.

15. India in the British Parliament, 1780-1784.—From 1780 to 1784 the affairs of the East India Company occupied a great deal of the attention of Parliament.

The outcome of this was the introduction of two bills called the Fox and Pitt India Bills.

Fox’s India Bill, 1784.—Fox’s bill aimed at the transfer of British India to the direct government of the Crown. Fox, who was a sincere but mistaken patriot, believed himself to be aiding in the emancipation of millions of men from a galling tyranny. The bill passed the Commons, but was rejected by the Lords.

16. Pitt’s India Bill, 1784.—William Pitt, the younger (born 1759, died 1806), England’s greatest statesman, succeeded as Prime Minister. He immediately introduced his India Bill, the main object of which was ‘to provide a machinery which should control the proceedings of the Company.’ Its chief provisions may be thus summed up:—

1st. The Court of Directors, still chosen by the proprietors of India Stock, were to govern as before in appearance, while three of their number, forming a *Secret Committee*, were to be the real actors.

2nd. In reality the power was transferred to a 'Board of Control,' consisting of six privy councillors, whose decisions were final. The president of this board was the *Indian Minister*.

3rd. The bill forbade the Governor-General to enter upon any war, except in self-defence, or to make any treaty guaranteeing the dominions of any native prince. It was not till Lord Cornwallis made it a condition of his acceptance of the office, that the Governor-General was freed from subjection to his Council, and allowed to act in extreme cases in defiance of the other members of the Government. He was thenceforth virtually supreme.

4th. The Governor-General's Council was reduced to three, of whom one was to be the commander-in-chief of the Company's forces in India, and the other two Bengâl civilians. Similar councils were established at Madras and Bombay.

17. Mr. Dundas, 1784-1800.—For sixteen years, Mr. Dundas, who was the first president of the Board of Control, filled that position. Parliament, after this, rarely interfered, and for many years showed little interest in Indian affairs.

The Nawâb of Arcot's debts, 1784.—One of the greatest scandals in British history is that connected with the Nawâb of Arcot's debts. His creditors were men in the Company's service, of every grade. The claims were swollen by every species of dishonesty. It became a gigantic system of fraud. To lend money to the Nawâb was the shortest way to fortune. For sixty years these claims were under investigation, and cost the country millions of money.

18. Sir John Macpherson.—Sir John Macpherson, senior member of Council, acted as Governor-General for twenty months, from February 1785 to September 1786.

The offer of the appointment was made to Lord Macartney, who judiciously demanded additional powers to add weight to an office of so much responsibility. Mr. Dundas was offended,

and Lord Cornwallis, who not long before (October 19, 1781) had surrendered himself and a British army to Washington, was appointed (February 1786) Governor-General of India.

LORD CORNWALLIS, 1786-1793. THE SECOND GOVERNOR-GENERAL.

19. The new Governor-General arrived in Calcutta in September 1786.

For the state of affairs among the Mahrattas and Tippû at this period, the student must compare chap. v. and chap. xi.

20. Lord Cornwallis enjoyed the entire confidence of Pitt and Dundas. He came out pledged to avoid all occasions of war: his mission was to be that of a peacemaker and reformer.

He reforms the services.—His firmness repressed the factious, and he bent all his energies to the removal of corruption from all branches of the service. Such a reform was never more needed than it was then. At this time small salaries were given to the Company's servants, and, as their opportunities were great, they easily yielded to the temptation of enriching themselves by every species of official depredation.

The coinage at this time was debased, insufficient, and various. Lord Cornwallis and Mr. Shore steadily worked out a reform in the currency. This materially aided the effect of the other measures then adopted.

His first real measure of effectual reform was that of assigning to every officer of Government such a salary as should leave him no shadow of excuse for trading, or attempting to acquire money by corrupt practices. This measure, added to an incomparable firmness and consistency in resisting all jobbery and favouritism, and in punishing all frauds, soon cleansed the Augean stable. The purity of the Indian services soon became (and has continued to be) as conspicuous as their corruption had been notorious. The example of this great man was as effectual as his legislation in this respect.

21. **The Guntûr Sirkâr.**—The next step was to claim the

Guntûr Sirkâr, which had been assigned by the Nizâm to the British Government on the death of Basâlat Jung.

In 1788, Lord Cornwallis made a peremptory demand for its cession. The Nizâm complied at once, but begged for a British contingent to aid him against 'Tippû,' who had usurped the Bâlaghât.

Lord Cornwallis promised this aid, stipulating, however, that the British troops should not be employed against any power in alliance with England. Of these powers a list was given, and Tippû's was not there. This letter was the occasion, though not the real cause, of Tippû's breach of the treaty of Mangalôr.

22. The First War with Tippû.—Lord Cornwallis was in the Madras Presidency from 1790 to 1792, engaged in the conduct of the *Third Mysôr War*, the issue of which was entirely favourable to the English. This was the first time that the English armies had been led by a Governor-General.

His generosity.—He was censured in England for the acquisition of territory which was the result of this war, but the nation in general approved of his conduct, and he was made a Marquess. He generously gave up to the army his share of prize-money, amounting to £50,000, as did General Meadows.

23. The Permanent Settlement.—Some attention must be paid to Lord Cornwallis's PERMANENT SETTLEMENT. This is the chief ground of his fame.

The Zamîndâr System.—The land had been the principal source of revenue under every dynasty. The collectors of this revenue under the Mogul Emperors had, by degrees, converted themselves into Zamîndârs, possessing military authority. These persons the British Government did not at first recognise, but in 1786, the Directors wrote out that all engagements should, as a matter of policy, be made with the Zamîndârs. This was to be done for ten years, and the settlement was to be made permanent, if found to answer. Lord Cornwallis, by his regulations in 1793, conferred upon these persons the absolute proprietorship of the soil. They were constituted landlords, and the cultivators became their tenants. These last were left too much at the

mercy of the Zamîndârs, and this was the weak point in the whole settlement.

24. The Civil and Criminal Courts.—The reform of the civil and criminal courts next occupied his attention. Sir Elijah Impey's rules were developed into a volume of regulations by Sir George Barlow, and the system of Civil Courts and procedure, which, with some modifications, still exists, was established.

The greatest evil of this system was the power it gave to the police of oppressing the people. Natives, moreover, were excluded from all share in the administration of justice, and from all but the most subordinate offices in the public employ. This was remedied in after times. It seems a serious and inexcusable mistake; but, regarding the great work of reform and reorganisation before him, Lord Cornwallis determined that every responsible office should then be filled by a European.

25. War with France.—The French Republican Convention declared war against England in February 1793, and Pondicherry was at once taken by the British troops. It was held till 1802.

26. Lord Cornwallis, one of the Founders of the British Indian Empire.—Lord Cornwallis left India in October 1793. He was firm, dignified, and vigorous. His administration consolidated greatly the Anglo-Indian empire: Clive and Hastings were its founders, Cornwallis gave it system and stability.

Had Hastings possessed the authority which Cornwallis now compelled the Company to concede to him, he would have left his successor little to do in the way of reform.

27. The Declaratory Act.—To this period belong the *Declaratory Act* and the *Charter* of 1793. In 1788 Mr. Pitt introduced a Bill affirming that the Bill of 1784 was intended to transfer to the Crown all real power in regard to Indian affairs. This was the *Declaratory Act*.

The Company's charter was renewed in 1793 for twenty years, chiefly through the influence of Mr. Dundas.

By it (1) the monopoly of the trade to India, and all other exclusive privileges, were continued. Free trade was supposed to be ruin.

(2) Missionaries and teachers were excluded by its provisions. Knowledge, and especially religious knowledge, it was argued, would lead to rebellion.

MR. SHORE (SIR JOHN SHORE, LORD TEIGNMOUTH),
1793-1798.

THE THIRD GOVERNOR-GENERAL.

28. His former services.—Mr. Shore was a civilian, mainly instrumental in effecting the permanent settlement, though he wished that it should be decennial. He had attracted the notice of Pitt and Dundas by his able conduct of that affair. He first arrived in India in 1769.

29. The affairs of Tippû, of the Pûna Government, and of the Nizâm were very much complicated. The Governor-General tried to mediate, but with little effect.

Mr. Shore's subsequent neutrality and want of energy emboldened the Mahrattas to attack the Nizâm, left thus to his fate. The battle of Kûrdlâ humbled the Nizâm, and placed Nânâ Farnavis on the pinnacle of power.

30. Mutiny of Bengâl Officers, 1795-1796.—The mutiny of the European officers of the Bengâl army, who clamoured for higher pay and every species of privilege, was only checked by a weak and injudicious yielding to the malcontents of nearly all they asked. The Home Government immediately superseded Sir John Shore, and Lord Cornwallis agreed to resume his office for a time ; but the evident inclination of the Court of Directors weakly to yield to the discontented officers led to his subsequent refusal at that time to return to India

31. Oudh.—In 1797 *Asof-ud-daula*, the Nawâb Vazîr of Oudh, died. In vain had he been exhorted to pay some attention to the welfare of his kingdom. He lived and died a child in intellect, and a debased sensualist. A reputed son of the late Nawâb, Vazîr Ali, succeeded him ; but his proved illegitimacy and

worthless character led Sir John Shore to displace him, and to elevate Sâdat Ali, brother of the late Nawâb. The history of Oudh will show how entirely its affairs were in the hands of the British Government. The tribute was seventy-six lakhs a year, and the subsidiary force 10,000 men.

Mr. Cherry.—Mr. Cherry was then Resident at Benâres, and he negotiated the treaty with Sâdat Ali, who then lived at Benâres. Soon after, the new Nawâb marched to Lucknow, where Sir John Shore was encamped. The Governor-General was in extreme peril from the displaced Vazîr Ali's hordes of lawless soldiers; but, with the utmost calmness and composure, he maintained his position, and the new Nawâb was placed on the Musnud, Vazîr Ali being sent to Benâres.

In 1799 Vazîr Ali assassinated Mr. Cherry in Benâres, and raised a temporary rebellion, but was defeated and taken prisoner.

32. Sir John Shore, who was created Lord Teignmouth, sailed for England in March 1798.

THE MARQUESS WELLESLEY, 1798-1805.

THE FOURTH GOVERNOR-GENERAL.

'The Akbar of the Company's Dynasty.'

33. **Lord Mornington.**—The Marquess Wellesley (Lord Mornington), the FOURTH Governor-General, arrived in India in May 1798, and quitted it in August 1805—a most eventful period.

34. **The idea of a Balance of Power destroyed.**—It is his merit to have destroyed the foolish idea of maintaining a *balance of power* among the native princes: of balancing them one against the other, and of secretly encouraging their enmities, in order to obtain power over all, without seeming to interfere with any.

His was a bold, wise, and humane *policy of intervention*. It has been called the *subsidiary system*. He was not its author; but he developed, and strove to introduce it into every native state. As the subsidiary system was the result of the greater resources, intelligence, and military skill of the English, so it led,

of necessity, to the rapid extension of the supremacy of England; but it must be conceded, that that system was rendered necessary by the selfish policy, the indolent incapacity, and the internecine wars of the various Dakhani chiefs.

Without this system, England must, at the close of the eighteenth century, have abandoned India, leaving it a prey to miserable anarchy, and relinquishing the fruits of all her labours in the East.

And it will be seen that, when once introduced, the subsidiary system could not but become universal.

35. Mahratta and Mysôr.—For Mahratta affairs, Treaty of Bassein (1802), and Second Mahratta War ending in 1802, see chap. v. Raghuji Bhonslé and Daûlat Rao Scindia formed subsidiary alliances in 1803 and 1804.

For the Fourth Mysôr War, ending in 1799, see the last chapter.

36. Oudh Affairs in 1801.—Oudh was at this period mismanaged and oppressed by its ruler and his Vazîr. The troops were ill-disciplined and irregularly paid. Sâdat Ali, according to the terms of the treaty which placed him on the throne, was bound to maintain an efficient army, on which condition only the British Government had engaged to defend his throne and kingdom (comp. 31). This Lord Wellesley now compelled him to do. Mr. Henry Wellesley was sent to negotiate. Districts were ceded for the support of the army, and Oudh was thus placed for the time in security. These important districts comprised Allâhâbâd, Futtehpûr, Khânpûr, Azinghar, Gorruckpûr, Bareilly, Morâdâbâd, Bijnûr, Budaôn, and Shâhjehânpûr, forming the chief part of what are now called the North-western Provinces.

37. The first *subsidiary alliance* formed at this time was with the Nizâm, whom Kûrdlâ had well-nigh ruined.

The French force was disbanded, and a corps of British troops, paid by the Nizâm and officered by Europeans, was substituted for it. The British henceforth garrisoned his territories, while, he paid the cost.

The districts of Bellary and Cuddapa were made over by the

Nizâm in payment for the subsidiary force. They are called the *ceded districts* of Haidarâbâd.

38. The Great Men in the Indian Services.—The number of great men then in the English service, civil and military, is very remarkable.

Colonel Sir Barry Close, Sir John Malcolm, the Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone, Sir Thomas Munro, Henry Wellesley (Lord Cowley), Arthur Wellesley (the Duke of Wellington), Mr. Colebrooke, Sir Charles Metcalfe, General Lord Lake, Colonel Collins, Colonel Ochterlony, Major Walker, and Mr. Webbe, were among the men who gave effect to the great 'Proconsul's' wishes; and many of them were men formed and fitted for great achievements by his influence. Meanwhile the amount of labour, close and constant, performed by the Governor-General himself almost surpasses belief. A like remark may be made with regard to almost every one who has ever filled that high office.

39. Tanjôr Affairs.—The extinction of the Tanjôr Râj, as an independent government, took place in 1800.

40. The Marquess leaves India.—In August 1805, the Marquess Wellesley left Calcutta, attended by the applause of all right-judging persons. The Court of Directors, though opposed to his policy, recorded their opinion of his 'ardent zeal to promote the well-being of India, and to uphold the interest and honour of the British Empire.' A sum of £20,000 was granted to him, and his statue was placed in the India house.

Private Trade.—One of the subjects of continual debate during this administration was that of *private trade*. The Company in 1793 allowed 3000 tons annually for this purpose; but the trade of private individuals soon passed this limit. Lord Wellesley wished to throw the trade open. The Court still dreaded *interlopers*, and continued to put off the inevitable day when India should be free to all. His liberality cost him the favour of the Company. The benefits bestowed on India by the unrestricted introduction of British enterprise and capital are now universally acknowledged. From this time there was little cordiality between the two parties. Financial embarrassment

(for the cost of the Mahratta wars was enormous) was severely felt at this period.

41. Vexatious interference of the Court of Directors.—In 1802 the Court of Directors reduced various items of expenditure sanctioned by the Governor-General; removed Mr. Webbe, the very able and upright Secretary of the Madras Government; and otherwise interfered in such a vexatious way with his prerogatives, that the Governor-General intimated his intention of returning to England. Lord Clive, the Governor of Madras (1799-1803), son of the great Clive, resigned in consequence, and was succeeded by Lord William Bentinck (1803-1807). The Marquess was, however, induced to remain another year. That eventful year fixed the destinies of British India.

It was the year of the Second Mahratta War. See chap. v.

LORD CORNWALLIS, SECOND TIME. SIR GEORGE BARLOW,
1805-1807.

42. Lord Cornwallis' Second Arrival, 1805.—LORD CORNWALLIS was appointed to succeed the great Marquess, and arrived a second time in Calcutta on the 1st of August, 1805.

His main object was to overturn Lord Wellesley's statesman-like policy, and to terminate the contest with Sindia and Holkâr at any cost.

His Policy.—He condemned the Treaty of Bassein. He was willing, despite the manly and energetic remonstrance of Lord Lake, to lay British honour at the feet of the successful freebooter, Daulat Râo Sindia, and of Holkâr.

43. His Death, October 5th, 1805.—Death arrested his progress to the scene of war, at Ghâzipûr, near Benâres. The mild and virtuous old man died in the discharge of what he erroneously believed to be his duty, and his memory will always be held in honour.

Barlow's Views.—SIR GEORGE BARLOW, as senior member of Council, now succeeded. He entirely agreed with the views of Lord Cornwallis. It must be stated, however, that Barlow

steadily refused to depart from the policy of Wellesley in regard to Pôna. He maintained the position which the treaty of Bassein gave the English Government. At the same time he had to contend with great financial difficulties.

Sir George Barlow himself was compelled to 'interfere' in the Nizâm's affairs to preserve peace.

44. The Vellore Mutiny.—During Sir George Barlow's tenure of office occurred the *Vellore Mutiny*. There was dissatisfaction among the Sepoys in the Madras Presidency on account of a change in their head-dress. Lord William Bentinck was then Governor of Madras. The discontent was fomented by the sons of Tippû and their retainers, who lived in Vellore.

The family of Tippû had been permitted to live there, under scarcely any restraint, with princely incomes, surrounded by a large Muhammadan population, and there can be no doubt that their agents had corrupted the native soldiery.

The Massacre.—On the 10th of July 1806, at 2 A.M., the native troops in Vellore rose against the European part of the garrison, consisting of two companies of the 69th Regiment, and massacred 113 persons.

Colonel Gillespie, who was at Arcot, sixteen miles distant, hearing of the attack, immediately marched to the spot, retook the fort, and dispersed the insurgents.

Tranquillity was ultimately restored ; but the Vellore mutiny showed, what the greater mutiny of 1857 confirmed, that nothing is too insignificant to excite the most wide-spread panic in India.

The Causes of the Outbreak.—On this occasion it was said that the new turban was a kind of hat, and that its introduction was a part of a systematic design to make the Sepoys into Christians. The turn-screw attached to the uniform was said to be a cross. Vaccination, which had been recently introduced, was a part of the plan. It was asserted that all natives who did not put up the cross over their doors were to be massacred. Muhammadan Fakîrs vied with Hindû Sanyâsis in fanning the flames.

It is, however, a truth admitting of no dispute, that the world

has never seen a government more liberal and entirely tolerant than that which Great Britain exercises over her Indian Empire.

This has even been carried to an excess. The Serampore missionaries, Carey, Marshman, and Ward, were for a time prevented from teaching Christianity in the Company's territories. It will now be readily admitted that Christian missionaries in India have been the unwearied, earnest friends of the people. They have, in every part of the land, striven to benefit the native races, and have been the best pioneers of civilisation and education.

45. Tippû's family removed.—Tippû's family was now removed to Bengâl, where the colony, liberally supported by the Government, still exists. Lord William C. Bentinck and Sir John Cradock, the commander-in-chief at Madras, were removed, though no real blame attached to the former, and the error of the latter was venial.

46. Sir George Barlow removed to Madras.—Sir George Barlow, who was a good man of business, not of a high order of intellect, of unpopular manners, and destitute of tact, was now superseded by the Ministry (Lord Grenville's); and LORD MINTO, who had been President of the Board of Controul, was appointed.

Sir George Barlow was consoled with the government of Madras, which he held from 1807 to 1813, when he was finally recalled.

LORD (EARL OF) MINTO, 1807-1813.

47 LORD MINTO (who arrived in Calcutta early in 1807, and left it in October 1813) found India in a state of stupor, which the advocates of the 'peace-at-any-price' policy called tranquillity. It will be seen that this great man was by no means disposed to abide by the 'non-interference policy.'

48. Travancore Affairs.—In 1808 disturbances broke out in Travancore, which did not cease till February 1809. •

49. The management of Travancore had for some time been

shamefully corrupt. The Resident had interfered, and the Diwân was irritated. He intrigued with the Diwân of the neighbouring state of Cochin and with the French. Sir George Barlow was then Governor of Madras, and took prompt measures to suppress the rebellion.

A vessel with thirty-one privates and a surgeon of the 12th Regiment put into *Allepie*. The men were decoyed on shore, seized, tied in couples back to back, and with stones tied round their necks, thrown into the back-water.

The Resident's house at *Quilon* was attacked, and he escaped with difficulty.

The Storming of the Arambâli lines, 1809.—A detachment under Colonel H. Leger marched from Palamcottah to the Arambâli lines, constructed in the pass about twelve miles from Cape Comorin, where there is a broad level opening between the mountains, leading up from South Tinnevely into the Travancore country.

These lines were soon occupied by the British troops under Major Walsh.

The Diwân finally committed suicide, and his brother was hanged in front of the 12th Regiment, in the murder of whose men he had participated.

The Râja denied all cognisance of the acts of his Diwân.

The Travancore state remained under British management till 1813, when it was restored to the Râja.

50. Mauritius, November 1810.—It was now found necessary to send an expedition to take the islands of Mauritius, Bourbon, and Rodrigues, from which French cruisers constantly issued and made prizes of our ships. Expeditions in 1809 and 1810 accomplished this result in the most brilliant manner.

Mauritius still remains under the British dominion. Bourbon was restored to the French in 1814.

51. Sir Charles Metcalfe, 1808.—Lord Minto sent Mr. Metcalfe (afterwards Sir Charles and Lord Metcalfe) on an embassy to the sovereign of Lâhôr, the extraordinary *Ranjit Sing*.

Ranjit Sing.—A treaty was then concluded, by which he

bound himself not to encroach upon the rights of the Cis-Satlaj states, and to maintain amicable relations with the British Government.

First Treaty of Lâhôr.—Such an effect is said to have been produced upon that astute chief by the demeanour of the young envoy (then in his twenty-sixth year), that he never could be persuaded in his after-life to break the treaty he then signed.

This treaty with Ranjît Sing marks the beginning of a new period of British Indian history: the Panjab now becomes of importance.

Dutch Possessions taken.—As the French had at this time subdued the Netherlands, it became necessary for the Governor-General to take possession of the Dutch settlements in the Eastern seas. *Amboyna*, *Banda*, and finally *Java*, were taken by a force under Sir Samuel Auchmuty (April 1812).

Sir Stamford Raffles was appointed Governor. At the peace of 1814 these conquests were restored to the Dutch.

52. Treaty with Sind, Persia, and Afghânistan, 1809.—Lord Minto not only made British influence supreme in the Western and Eastern Seas; but he opened negotiations with Sind, Kâbul, and Persia, with the object of preventing French intrigues, and securing peace in India. The Amîrs of Sind agreed to exclude the French.

Mountstuart Elphinstone was sent to Kâbul, where he concluded a treaty with the king, Shâh Shuja.

Sir John Malcolm was sent to Persia; and, another envoy having been sent from England at the same time, a treaty was signed by the Shâh, in which he bound himself not to allow the passage through Persia of troops hostile to Britain. It is the glory of Lord Minto to have selected such men as Metcalfe, Elphinstone, and Malcolm.

53. Bandêlkhand, 1807-1812.—The pacification of Bandêlkhand was also the work of this administration. Kalinjîr and Ajyghur were taken, and the lawless chiefs reduced to order.

54. Lord Minto made an Earl—His Death.—Lord Minto was now raised to an earldom: but died shortly after his return to

England in 1813. He was, through the influence of the Prince Regent, recalled before his time, to make way for Lord Moira.

He is justly esteemed one of the greatest of the Anglo-Indian statesmen. He had been one of the managers of the prosecution of Warren Hastings. His Indian experience greatly altered his opinion on all Indian matters.

The Anglo-Indian Empire now numbered 75,000,000 of subjects, of whom 15,000,000 were Musulmāns, 60,000,000 Hindūs, and 30,000 Europeans.

55. Renewal of the Charter, 1813.—In 1793 the East India Company's charter had been renewed for twenty years. The time had now come for the reconsideration of the subject. The result was:—

(1.) The destruction of the Company's monopoly, in defence of which the Court of Directors made a determined struggle. The trade to China was still to remain in their hands; but the trade to India was thrown open.

(2.) An ecclesiastical establishment was formed, consisting of a Bishop of Calcutta, and an Archdeacon at each of the presidency towns.

The learned *Middleton* was the first Bishop of Calcutta. *Heber*, *Wilson*, and *Cotton*, among his successors, have left great names to be inscribed in the roll of British Indian worthies.

THE MARQUESS OF HASTINGS (EARL MOIRA), 1813-1823.

THE SEVENTH GOVERNOR-GENERAL.

56. Earl Moira.—Earl Moira (afterwards Marquess of Hastings) succeeded. He was a distinguished soldier, an experienced statesman, and a man of noble manners and character. He arrived in Calcutta in October 1813. He found the finances embarrassed, and many disputes with native states pending. He was for nine years an indefatigable, resolute, and successful ruler. It was a truly critical period of British Indian history in which he held the reins of government.

57. War with Nipāl, 1814.—The first dispute he had to settle was with the Court of Nipāl, where the Ghūrkas had recently

made themselves formidable. These were recent conquerors of Nipâl (1767), acknowledged by the British, to whom they paid tribute for the lands about Makwanpûr. The native ruler of Nipâl had encroached on the British territory on every side, and more especially had imprisoned the Zamindâr of Bût-wâl, who was under British protection, and had seized his territories. Eighteen English police-officers were murdered in Bût-wâl, and it became necessary to proceed in the most energetic manner to vindicate the national honour.

Four divisions of troops were sent. One was to march on Katmandû by way of Makwanpûr. The second was to take possession of Bût-wâl, Sheroâj, and Palpa. The third to penetrate the passes of Dêra Dûn, occupy that valley, and seize the passes of the Jamna and the Ganges. The fourth, under General Ochterlony, was to act against the western provinces, where the flower of the Ghûrka troops were.

The advance by the Dêra Dûn into Gurhwâl was slow. *Kalunga*, a strong fortress, twenty-six miles north from Hurd-wâr, was taken after several failures, and utterly destroyed. Here General Gillespie, the hero of Vellore, fell. General Ochterlony occupied, after immense labour, and by great bravery and skill, the heights of Râmgurh, and the Râja of *Balaspûr* was detached from the Nipâl cause. But on the whole, the aspect of things was not cheering. The other detachment met with small reverses, and the Ghûrkas were elated, while the English troops were dispirited.

The disaffected throughout India, and especially the Mahrattas, rejoiced in the apparent failure of the British arms.

The capture of Maloun, by General Ochterlony, May 1815, was the first very decided advantage gained. The whole of the forts between the Jamna and the Satlaj were then yielded to the British, and Gurhwâl was evacuated.

Treaty with Nipâl, March 1816.—Negotiations for peace were now set on foot, and, though retarded by the insincerity and vacillation of the Nipâl court, resulted at length in a treaty of peace, by which the territories of the Nipâl state were reduced to their present dimensions, the Ghûrkas losing the territory between the Satlaj and the Gôgra.

To Sir David Ochterlony's judgment and skill the successful result of this war is chiefly due.

58. For Mahratta affairs and the fourth Mahratta War, compare chapter v.

59. **January 9, 1823.**—The Marquess now retired. The Company's revenue had increased during his administration by £6,000,000 a year. He was a worthy follower of the Marquess Wellesley. Besides his elevation in the peerage, an estate of £60,000 was given him, and, at his death (in 1827), a further sum of £20,000 was placed in the hands of trustees for the benefit of his son.

EARL AMHERST, 1823-1828. THE EIGHTH GOVERNOR-GENERAL.

60. Mr. Canning was nominated to succeed the Marquess of Hastings, but, being appointed Foreign Secretary, he declined the nomination, and LORD AMHERST, who had distinguished himself in his embassy to China, became the eighth Governor-General. He landed in Calcutta August 1, 1823.

Mr. Frederick Adam.—Mr. Adam acted in the meanwhile (January 1 to August 1, 1823).

The Nizâm's debts.—Mr. Adam relieved the Nizâm of Haidarâbâd by lending him money to discharge his debts to the gigantic firm of Palmer & Co., and forbade any further pecuniary dealings of that firm with the Haidarâbâd court.

The firm was ruined, but the Nizâm was saved.

61. **War with Burma.**—Lord Amherst's first undertaking was the war with *Burma*. The last wars took us to the Western Ghâts. This takes us to the furthest east of India, and beyond its borders.

Alompra.—An adventurer from Pegu, called Alompra, in 1752-1753, obtained possession of Âva, enlarged the Burmese territories, subjugated Arakân and Munipûr, and placed Assam under a Burmese chief. He granted to the Company the island of Negrais and some land near Rangoon. He died in 1760.

There were many causes of complaint against the court of

Âva, but in 1818 a formal demand was made by the Burmese for the cession of Chittagong, Mûrshedâbâd, and Dacca, as belonging to the ancient kingdom of Arakân. This was, of course, treated with contempt. In 1823 the island of Shâhpûrî was occupied by thirteen Sepoys, for the protection of British subjects. A body of a thousand Burmese expelled them. Cachâr was next attacked, and British troops were sent to aid the fugitive Râja. The arrogance of the Burmese was unbounded, and it became necessary to send an expedition to thoroughly humble them.

62. The Burmese expedition.—The Bengâl and Madras troops met at Port Cornwallis, in the Great Andaman, in May 1824, and sailed at once to the mouth of the *Rangoon River*. Sir Archibald Campbell was in command.

Rangoon was taken. The stockades at Kemendin were stormed, Major Robert Sale (the hero of Jellâlâbâd), being the first to scale them. The force had now to endure the monsoon rains, sickness, and want. The commissariat department at Calcutta had failed in its duty, but Sir Thomas Munro, Governor of Madras, saved the army by promptly sending supplies.

Negrais and Cheduba were then carried. Ten stockades were stormed in one day. Martaban was taken, and successful expeditions were undertaken in the Tenasserim coast and in Assam.

The most noted Burmese chief, Mahâ Bandûla, who had 20,000 men under his command, now appeared on the scene. At the capture of Donabew that leader was killed by a rocket.

Sir Archibald pushed on to Prome. Meanwhile Arakân was gallantly taken by another body of troops under General Morrison and Commander Hayes.

Negotiations for peace were now entered into, but broken off by the refusal of the King of Âva (who had not even yet fully learnt the power of the English) to make any concession. The British force advanced, under great difficulties, to Patanagoh, where a treaty was nearly concluded, but again broken off.

Mellûn, on the opposite bank of the Irawâdy, was then stormed, and the troops advanced to the city of Pagahn, where

a decisive victory was gained by a British force of 2000 against a Burmese army of 18,000. The English prisoners were now released.

63. February 1826. Treaty of Yendabû.—Finally, at Yendabû, within four days' march (forty-five miles) of the capital, a treaty was signed, by which the King of Ava agreed to give up all claims to Assam, Cachâr, and Jyntia, to cede Arakân, Râmri, Cheduba, and Sandowy, with the provinces of Yeh, Tavoy, Mergui, and Tenasserim, the Salwin river being the boundary, to pay a crore of rupees as a partial indemnification for the expenses of the war, and as a proof of the 'sincere disposition of the Burmese Government to maintain the relations of amity and peace between the two nations.' These provinces have wonderfully prospered since their cession. Akyâb and Moulmein have become flourishing ports.

Thus ended a just war, carried on with wonderful bravery, and concluded by a peace, the tenor of which remarkably illustrates the moderation of the conquerors.

64. The Barrackpûr Mutiny.—Connected with the First Burmese War was the disgraceful Barrackpûr Mutiny.

65. The taking of Bhartpûr, 1826.—The taking of Bhartpûr, which had been assaulted unsuccessfully by Lord Lake, January 18, 1826, is another event that renders this administration remarkable, and which produced a salutary feeling throughout India.

The following is a summary of events that led to the war with Bhartpûr:—

Râja Bandhar Sing died without issue in 1823.

His brother, Baldêo Sing, succeeded. Durjan Sâl, son of a younger brother, however, contested the succession.

Sir David Ochterlony, Resident in Mâlwa and Râjpûtâna, examined these conflicting claims, and the result of his report was, that the Governor-General addressed Baldêo Sing a congratulatory letter on his accession, and authorised Sir David to give him formal investiture. The Resident did so, and also acknowledged his son, Balwant Sing, as his successor. Baldêo

died the same month (January 26, 1825). Durjan Sâl instantly took possession of the fort, murdered the uncle of the young Râja, and seized his person. Sir David at once took prompt measures to put down the usurper, but was forbidden to interfere by the Governor-General. This not unnaturally led to his resignation, which was followed by his death in a few weeks. For fifty years a soldier, he had served in every Indian war from the time of Haidar downwards. He was the especial hero of the war in Nîpâl, and had distinguished himself as a diplomatist.

Sir Charles Metcalfe in Delhi.—Sir Charles Metcalfe now arrived from Haidarâbâd to occupy the position of Resident of Delhi and of Râjpûtâna.

He urged that Balwant Sing should be supported, and a proper regency established. Lord Amherst gracefully yielded to the opinion of this eminent statesman.

Lord Combermere, commander-in-chief, marched from Muttra, and the memorable siege began on the 28th December 1825. The vast fortifications of mud could not be beaten down by artillery, but a mine, with ten thousand pounds of powder, made a practicable breach. It was stormed on the 18th January 1826 by two columns under Generals Reynell and Nicholls. The fort was dismantled, and its walls levelled to the ground.

The young Râja was reinstated, and peace restored.

66. The Straits Settlements.—In 1824, Malacca, Singapore, and the Dutch possessions on the continent of India (Negapatam, etc.), were ceded to England, in exchange for Bencoolen, in Sumatra.

At Singapore arrangements were made with the native chiefs, by which the Company obtained the absolute possession of the island. The other British settlements in that quarter are Pulo Penang, or Prince of Wales Island, and the province of Wellesley on the mainland. The island was given by the King of Kirda, in 1786, to Captain Light, the master of a country ship, as a marriage portion with the king's daughter. He made it over to the East India Company, and was made its governor. The province of Wellesley was purchased. The whole of the Straits Settlements were made over to the Colonial Office in 1866.

67. Sir Thomas Munro.—Sir Thomas Munro, who had held the government of Madras from 1820, died of cholera near Gûti in July 1827. He was the chief advocate of the *Ryotwâr* system.

68. Mr. Bayley acting Governor-General.—Earl Amherst, who can hardly be numbered among the more eminent rulers of British India, quitted India in March 1828, Mr. Butterworth Bayley, one of Lord Wellesley's disciples, acting as Governor-General until his successor arrived.

Simla.—*Simla* was first occupied as a residence by Lord Amherst.

LORD WILLIAM CAVENDISH BENTINCK, 1828-1835.

69. The period of Lord William C. Bentinck's administration was distinguished by progress, improvements, necessary reforms, the sweeping away of obsolete and injurious institutions, and the introduction of an enlightened and philanthropic policy.

70. Lord William Bentinck had been Governor of Madras, and was harshly and abruptly recalled in 1806. He was singularly benevolent, upright, firm, and liberal. He was anxious for this appointment, as tending to free his reputation from any stain that might be supposed to rest upon it from his former dismissal. It did so. A statue erected to his honour in Calcutta, with an inscription from the pen of Macaulay, preserves the remembrance of '*his wise, upright, and paternal administration.*'

71. Mysôr under British rule, 1832.—The administration of Mysôr was at this time assumed by the British Government, and placed under the system which until 1880 efficiently provided for the welfare of that flourishing province. (**General Cubbon, 1836-1861.**) General *Sir Mark Cubbon* was appointed Commissioner; and for twenty-five years administered its affairs with astonishing skill and energy.

Kûrg Affairs, 1834.—The principality of Kûrg, on the confines of Mysôr, is of great antiquity. The Vîra Râjas are mentioned as existing in A.D. 1583 by Ferishta.

It was subdued by Haidar, and in 1779 the heir, Vîra Râjendra, was excluded from the succession, and imprisoned. Tippû made

him a Musalmân by force ; but he escaped, and after a long and chivalrous struggle regained his dominions in 1787. His nephew, Vira Râjendra Udaiyâr, was Râja in 1832. He was a madman. Incest and wholesale murders are among the crimes of which he was guilty. Of the royal house he left no male alive. At length he defied the British authority ; and, when every means of conciliation had been exhausted, troops were sent. (April 6, 1834.) After a short struggle Markâra was taken possession of, and the Râja was sent to Benâres. He afterwards was permitted to visit England, and died in London in 1863. As this monster's cruelty had removed every one who could have any pretensions to succeed him, the state came directly under British Government. The daughter of the ex-Râja, the Princess Gouramma, was baptized in London, 1852, Queen Victoria being a sponsor. She died in 1864. The ten days' war in Kûrg formed the only break in the profound peace of the seven years of Lord William Bentinck's administration. Lieutenant-Colonel J. S. Fraser was the first Commissioner.

72. Reforms.—Lord William Bentinck had to perform the unpleasant task of carrying out extensive reductions and reforms in the civil and military establishments of the Company.

Half-Batta order.—The first was the abolition of Batta, or the reduction of it to one-half the former amount. This was an *allowance* given to the troops when in the field, doubled when they marched beyond the Company's frontier, and reduced to a half when they were in cantonments where quarters were provided for them. This reduction of allowances, which was certainly a hard one, aroused much indignation. Lord Combermere opposed it, and resigned. The Duke of Wellington and the home Government, however, strongly upheld it. The measure was, in fact, wholly of home origin, and had been urged on preceding Governors-General. Lord William Bentinck, though himself opposed to it, carried it out, undeterred by the abuse of private individuals, or of the public press. The saving effected was insignificant, and the irritation it produced was great and lasting.

Committees were appointed, which reduced the annual civil

expenditure by about half a million sterling, and the military by about one million.

73. Judicial and Revenue Reforms.—Judicial reforms were also introduced, tending to relieve European functionaries from the overwhelming pressure of work, and the whole system in regard to criminal justice was remodelled.

Sadr Amíns.—Sadr Amíns were appointed, who were empowered to decide cases to the value of 5000 rupees, and to receive appeals from the inferior Amíns. The vernacular languages were substituted for the Persian in all courts.

A Court of Appeal was created at Alláhábád for the Upper Provinces.

Mr. Robert Bird's Revenue Settlement of the N.-W. Provinces.—The *Revenue Settlement* of the North-west Provinces, carried out by Mr. Robert Bird (the Todar Mal of the Company's Government) still confers a blessing upon the millions under the British dominion in those districts. This minute and accurate survey of these districts, with the necessary examination of titles, the decision of disputes, and the ascertainment and register of each man's holding, was a work of which England may justly be proud.

74. The Abolition of Sati, Dec. 29, 1829.—Lord William's name is more closely connected with the abolition of 'Suttee.'

'Sati' in Sanskrit means a 'virtuous woman.' It is a term applied to the woman who immolates herself on the funeral pile of her deceased husband. This barbarous superstition had prevailed from remote antiquity, though really unsanctioned by Hindû authorities. Lord Wellesley, in his day, wished to restrain it. Lord William Bentinck and his two councillors, Mr. Butterworth Bayley and Sir Charles Metcalfe, boldly and wisely caused an enactment to be promulgated, making it a punishable crime in any way to aid and abet a 'Suttee.' Police-officers were authorised to prevent it, and to apprehend all persons engaged in such a transaction. Twenty-five times the attempt was made to perform Suttee afterwards, but the police quietly stopped the consummation of the murderous rite.

Thus was this horrible crime put an end to. In Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa, the number of victims had averaged 600 a year !

In the states of Râjpûtâna the practice is now nearly, if not quite, extinct. On the death, in 1861, of the Mahâ Râna of Oudipâr, the first Hindû prince in India, and the acknowledged head of the Râjpûts, none of the wives could be prevailed upon to immolate herself. A favourite slave-girl was the victim.

75. The 'Lex Loci.'—A law was also passed by which a convert to Muhammadanism, or to Christianity, was protected from the operation of the Hindû law, which declared such convert an outcast, and deprived him of his share of the family inheritance. This is evidently a just and necessary provision. If this 'Lex Loci' was opposed to the intolerant feelings of some of the people, another of the Governor-General's measures was most popular, as it was certainly just. Natives of India had, from the time of Lord Cornwallis, been excluded from all offices, except the very lowest. The Regulations of 1831 threw open many important offices to natives of every class. They are now found in every department of the public service. Thus Lord William Bentinck shares with Lord Wellesley the honour of being the *Akbar* of the Company's rule.

76. The Thugs.—The humane and active measures adopted for the extirpation of the bands of *Thugs*, which then infested Central India, were a boon to the whole country. These Thugs were said by tradition to have sprung from seven tribes, all of the Muhammadan religion, living near Delhi. They nevertheless especially devoted themselves to the worship of Kâlî, Dêvî, or Bhavânî, the wife of Siva, who is represented in the legends of the Purânas as having appeared in various terrific shapes for the destruction of demons. Human sacrifices are supposed to be especially pleasing to her.

Added to this, the Thugs were fatalists of the most thorough kind.

These Thugs, assuming the garb of peaceable pilgrims or merchants, travelled in bands, and were accustomed to decoy, and murder persons travelling through the forests of Central India.

When a favourable opportunity presented itself, they threw a noose round the neck of their victim, strangled, rifled, and buried him in an incredibly short space of time, every precaution being taken to keep the murder absolutely secret.

Thus multitudes of travellers were perpetually vanishing from the earth, and leaving no trace behind them. To the Thug this was his profession, his religion, his lawful calling.

Major Sleeman, 1829.—From time to time the Company's Government had striven to check these practices; but in 1829 Major Sleeman (afterwards Sir William Sleeman, one of the great philanthropists of the Anglo-Indian rule) was appointed commissioner for the extermination of the Thugs. Others were appointed to aid him; and the result has been the almost absolute suppression of the crime.

77. Oriental System of Education.—The 'Oriental system of education' was made to give way to the 'European system,' by a resolution of Government, that 'all the funds appropriated to the purposes of education should be employed in imparting to the native population a knowledge of English literature and science through the medium of the English language alone. In bringing about the change Thomas Babington Macaulay's [afterwards Lord Macaulay] influence was largely used. He resided in Calcutta from 1835 to 1840 as the fourth, or legislative member, of the Supreme Council. Mr. (Sir Charles) Trevelyan and Dr. Alexander Duff were two other untiring leaders of the advocates of English education.

The great leader of the Orientalists was H. H. Wilson, a distinguished Sanskrit scholar.

78. The 'Overland' route to India.—The commencement of steam communication with India constitutes a great era in the history of the connection of European nations with the East, and, in fact, in the history of half the Globe.

The *Hugh Lindsay* made the first voyage from Bombay to Suez. In 1834 the matter was taken up by the House of Commons; and, though the Court of Directors were indifferent to the subject, the *Peninsular and Oriental Company*, in 1843, sent their first steamer to Calcutta.

79. Lord William Bentinck spent a part of 1834 at Ootacumund, during which time the orders were promulgated which constituted *Âgra* a distinct Presidency, under a Lieutenant-Governor. At this time also all restrictions upon the settlement of Europeans in India were removed.

80. Râmmôhan Roy.—In 1833 Râmmôhan Roy, a distinguished native scholar and reformer, died at Bristol. He had done much to weaken the attachment of his countrymen to idolatry. Unfortunately he allowed himself to become the agent of the court of Delhi, which sent him to England to endeavour to obtain an increase to the king's stipend. He was thus lost to his countrymen.

81. Mr. Fraser's murder at Delhi.—In 1834 Mr. Fraser, political commissioner and agent of the Governor-General at Delhi, was shot dead by an assassin. He had offended Shams-ud-dîn Khân, the Nawâb of Ferôzpur, who instigated the murder. The Nawâb and his tool were both hanged at Delhi.

82. Interference in North-west and Afghân politics, 1831.—During Lord William Bentinck's administration, a fear of Russian intrigues in the countries north-west of the Indus led the British Government to interfere in the politics of the Panjâb, Sind, and Afghânistân.

Opening of the Indus.—Negotiations were carried on with the various princes through whose territories the Indus flows, for the free passage of vessels laden with British merchandise. Treaties for this object were made with the Amîrs of Sind, the Râja of Bahâwalpur, and Ranjît Sing, the ruler of Lâhôr. (**Meeting with Ranjît Sing at Râpar.**) The Governor-General met this great chieftain at Râpar on the Satlaj in 1831.

Colonel Henry Pottinger was the envoy to Sind. He found the Amîrs most averse to the idea of any connection with England. They at length yielded.

The result seems to have been that Ranjît Sing espoused the cause of the ex-king of Kâbul, Shâh Shuja.

83. Râjpût Affairs.—The affairs of the Râjpût and Bhôpâl states require our attention at this period. They illustrate the

necessity for constant, firm, and kindly interference on the part of the British Government; in which respect Lord William Bentinck failed to do his manifest duty.

84. The Charter of 1833-1834.—The East India Company's charter expired in 1834.

In prospect of this, parliamentary committees were appointed to investigate the Company's management of its extensive affairs. It was almost unanimously agreed that *the monopoly of the China trade* should be abandoned. Thus the Company ceased to possess any commercial character, though it was decided that its political functions should not be disturbed.

Some additions to the ecclesiastical establishment were made, including the foundation of Episcopal Sees at Madras and Bombay.

The result of the extinction of the Company as a commercial body was beneficial. It elevated the views and the policy of the Directors to somewhat of an imperial character.

The trade with China doubled in the following ten years, and the British exports to India and Ceylon increased in the same period from $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions to $6\frac{3}{4}$.

The dividends of the Company were guaranteed by Parliament at £630,000 a year, to be entirely redeemable in 1874.

Âgra was made the capital of a fourth Presidency, and Sir Charles Metcalfe appointed to it; but in 1834 this was changed, and the North-western Provinces have been administered by a Lieutenant-Governor from that time.

The new charter was granted in August 1833. It came into force in April 1834.

85. Character of Lord William Bentinck.—Lord William Bentinck left India in May 1835. He has been accused of vanity and a love of innovation. He was not a great politician, but his benevolence is unquestioned. Lord Dalhousie alone has surpassed him in the development of the resources of India.

86. Sir Charles Metcalfe, Acting Governor-General, 1835-1836.
—SIR CHARLES METCALFE succeeded provisionally, being senior member of Council in Calcutta at the time. He had just reached

Âgra to assume his appointment of Governor of the new Presidency.

He had early distinguished himself as envoy (1808) to the court of Ranjît Sing, and afterwards as Resident at Delhi (to 1819) and at Haidarâbâd (to 1827). Thence he went to Calcutta as member of Council. He was, after leaving India finally, Governor of Jamaica (1839 to 1841), and Governor-General of Canada (1843 to 1845). He was only second to Warren Hastings in genius and knowledge of the requirements of Indian diplomacy.

But Sir Charles Metcalfe was only Acting Governor-General.

The high office was offered to Mountstuart Elphinstone, who declined it on the ground of broken health. It was then proposed to make Metcalfe permanent Governor-General.

The Whigs opposed this, on the ground that such an appointment should only be filled from England.

Lord Heytesbury was then appointed ; but on the eve of his departure the Whigs again came into power, revoked Lord Heytesbury's appointment, and conferred it on Lord Auckland. Metcalfe returned to Âgra in 1826, but soon resigned in consequence of the displeasure of the Court of Directors, excited by the 'liberation of the press.'

87. Press freed.—The one great act of this administration (which lasted till August 1836) was the *liberation of the press*.

The press in India at first had been subjected to a censorship, then to certain stringent rules drawn up by the Government.

It was now freed from all restrictions, save those of the laws that govern all orders of men in the realm. Macaulay, as member of Council, supported Metcalfe in this matter.

LORD AUCKLAND, 1836-1842.

88. Oudh Affairs, 1837.—Nâsir-ud-dîn Haidar, King of Oudh, a profligate and weak prince, died in July 1837. Two persons had been acknowledged by him as his sons, but afterwards disavowed.

The Begum wished that the elder of these should succeed. The British Resident supported the claim of an uncle of the

deceased king, Nâsir-ud-daula. An insurrection was headed by the Begum, but soon put down.

Satârâ, 1839.—The Râja was deposed by Sir James Carnac in 1839. His brother was placed on the throne in his stead. Treachery unhappily characterised the whole dynasty, which owed everything to the English.

89. The Afghân Expedition, 1839.—*The Afghân expedition.*

(a.) The lands between Persia and the Indus, inhabited by warlike hordes, have often given conquerors to India, from Mâhmûd of Ghazni to Ahmed Shâh Abdâlî, who was of the great family of the *Sulozyes*.

The chief of these tribes was that which possessed Kâbul. Dôst Muhammad was then on the throne of that city.

(b.) When Mounstuart Elphinstone visited Kâbul in 1808, the sovereign was *Shâh Shuja*, a descendant of Ahmed Shâh Abdâlî. This king was dethroned shortly after, and the states of Afghânistân were divided among various members of a rival family, called the *Barakzye* tribe. The most powerful of these was *Dôst Muhammad*, who possessed Kâbul and Ghazni. Ranjît Sing, the ruler of the Panjâb, had seized on Kashmîr and the districts east of the Indus, including Peshâwar. *Herât* was occupied by a descendant of the Abdâlî, and Balkh was annexed to Bokhâra.

(c.) **Shâh Shuja.**—Shâh Shuja lived in Lâdiâna, in exile, under the protection of the British power; he had, in fact, a pension of 4000 rupees a month from that Government.

An expedition he made in 1834, with the hope of recovering his lost dominions, was unsuccessful, owing to the bravery of Dôst Muhammad. Shâh Shuja returned in 1835 to his old place of exile.

(d.) **Persia and Russia.**—Soon after this, Persia began to aim at the subjugation of all these provinces up to the Indus, and began by attacking Herât. The Russian Government encouraged the Shâh of Persia (who was to repeat the exploits of Nâdir Shâh) in these undertakings.

Captain Burnes (afterwards Sir Alexander), who had been sent as envoy to Kâbul, did much by his representations to determine the British authorities to the policy of active interference.

(e.) Lord Auckland resolved to restore *Shâh Shuja*, whose claims were thought to be better founded than those of Dôst Muhammad, and whose cause was believed to be the more popular in Afghânistân. Thus, it was said, we should have a friendly and even dependent power in Kâbul as a bulwark against Russian aggression in the North-West. The whole scheme was foolish. If Lord Auckland had bent his energies to effect a reconciliation between Dôst Muhammad and Ranjît Sing, and had established friendly relations with the Afghân Court, the war would have been rendered unnecessary. Dôst Muhammad was prepared to act as an ally of England: Lord Auckland threw him into the arms of Russia. A treaty was signed, however, between Ranjît Sing, Shâh Shuja, and the British in June 1838; and a British force was marched to the Indus for the invasion of Afghânistân. Every one acquainted with India regarded the expedition with dismay.

Sir John Keane's Army of the Indus.—This army, called *the Army of the Indus*, was drawn from all the three Presidencies, and was under the command of Sir John Keane. One division of it was called the Shâh's army, and the other the Shâhzâda's (or Prince's), being nominally under the command of Teimûr, the son of Shâh Shuja.

(f.) **Mr. William H. MacNaghten.**—Mr. William H. MacNaghten was appointed envoy and Minister at the Court of Shâh Shuja. He was a profound Oriental scholar, had served in many capacities with honour, and was then Secretary to the Supreme Government.

(g.) **Defence of Herât—Siege raised, 1838.**—Meanwhile the Shâh of Persia's army, 40,000 strong, which had laid siege to Herât, the gate of Afghânistân, was compelled to retreat, mainly through the genius and gallantry of Lieutenant Eldred Pottinger, who had been sent into Central Asia by his uncle, Sir Henry Pottinger, Resident of Katch, to pursue ethnological researches. This led to a reduction of the forces sent to Afghânistân, and might well have put an end to the enterprise. The defence of Herât by Pottinger may fairly be compared with Clive's defence of Arcot.

(h.) The 'Shah's army' marched from Ferôzpur in December

crossed the Indus, took possession of Bukkur, thence advanced to Shikarpûr, to Dadur, at the entrance of the *Bolân Pass*, and to Kettah, where it arrived March 26th, 1839, and was followed by the Bombay force in April.

Kurâchî was taken in February by a naval armament. The Amirs of Sind were opposed to the passage of the British army, but their objections were roughly set aside.

Enthronement of Shâh Shuja, and death of Ranjît Sing, 1839.

—The army passed through the Kojut Pass, and thence to *Kandahâr*, where all had arrived early in May. There Shâh Shuja was solemnly enthroned. The march had been one of terrible privation, bravely borne. While the force was recruiting at Kandahâr, tidings reached them of the death of the Panjâb lion, Ranjît Sing, 27th June 1839. A grand meeting between him and Lord Auckland had taken place in November 1838, only second in magnificence to the meeting at Rûpar.

(i.) **Storming of Ghaznî, 1839.**—The force now marched on towards Kâbul, and the leaders were surprised to find Ghaznî a well-fortified city. They had no battering-train, but the Kâbul gate was blown open with a charge of 900 lbs. of gunpowder. Major Thompson of the Bengâl Engineers was the real captor of Ghaznî. Brigadier Sale (the immortal hero of Jellâlâbâd) and Colonel Dennie were among the foremost of a band of heroes who stormed the fortress. Thus 'the bride of the East' came into the hands of the English.

The army moved on and entered Kâbul, August 7, Dôst Muhammad having fled before it to Bokhâra.

An auxiliary force which had marched through the Khyber Pass, having taken Ali Musjid and Jellâlâbâd by the way, arrived at Kâbul early in September.

(j.) The Shâh being thus restored to his kingdom, the army was sent back; General Nott and Colonel Sale remaining with a part of the Bengâl force to defend the newly-restored king. This subsidiary body of troops was left there against Shâh Shuja's wishes. Sir William MacNaghten was Resident at the court of the restored king. The difficulties of the supposed conquerors began with the completion of the military enterprise.

The Bombay force, under General Willshire, on their home-

ing and sagacity, added to large experience in Eastern politics, was the British political agent at Kandahâr.

90. First Chinese War, 1840.—The history of the Earl of Auckland's administration would not be complete without some account of the first Chinese war. The cause of it was the smuggling of opium into China by English merchants.

Opium.—The Emperor of China, in order to check the pernicious habit of opium eating and smoking among his subjects, had laid a very heavy duty on this drug.

In putting down the smuggling of opium into the country, which naturally became frequent, the Chinese authorities committed unwarranted outrages on the ships and subjects of Great Britain.

To avenge these outrages, and to put the Chinese trade on a proper footing, the war was undertaken.

Troops from India, under Sir Hugh Gough, were sent, and, after a series of brilliant exploits, were successful in bringing the Chinese to terms.

Hong-Kong ceded, 1842.—By the treaty of Nankin the island of Hong-Kong was made over to England, and four ports were opened to European ships. These were Amoy, Fû-chow, Ningpo, and Shanghai.

The 'Opium War' was not popular in England.

91. The Râja of Kurnûl removed, 1841.—At this time the Râja of Kurnûl, who appears to have been insane, conducted himself in such a manner as to call for the interference of the British Government. He was removed, to the great relief of his oppressed subjects, and sent to Trichinopoly, where he was in the habit of attending Christian service in the Fort Church, in which he was assassinated by a Muhammadan fanatic.

92. Lord Auckland's departure, 1842. His Character.—The Earl of Auckland left India on the 12th March 1842. His name is inseparably connected with the Afghân expedition; but the impression he left in India was that he possessed high qualities, and might have done much for the country, had his lot not been cast in troublous times, when the fear of Russian aggression hurried England into this ill-fated undertaking.

At the beginning of this war there was, owing in part to his good management, a clear balance in the treasury of £10,000,000 sterling, at the close of it there was a large debt.

The connection of the British Government with the Hindû temples and worship was terminated in 1842. The State had acted as trustee for the endowments, and had caused various marks of respect to be paid on Hindû festivals. This was now discontinued.

LORD ELLENBOROUGH, 1842-1844.

93. Lord Ellenborough arrived in Calcutta, February 28, 1842. He was a statesman of high repute, eloquent, industrious, and energetic, and had been President of the Board of Control.

94. **Afghân War.**—We must now resume the history of the disastrous Afghân expedition. In March 1842, Ghazni was evacuated by the British troops, almost all of whom perished. This was disgraceful and disheartening.

But Jellâlâbâd held out. The annals of warfare contain few things more glorious. An earthquake added to the miseries of this heroic garrison, throwing down defences that had cost them months of labour. Yet not only did they maintain the fort, but, issuing forth, drove Akbar Khân away, and burnt his camp.

General Pollock (an old officer of Lord Lake's, who had seen forty years of arduous service), with the relieving army, forced the Khyber Pass on the 5th April, and soon after reached Jellâlâbâd. He baffled the Khyberis, who were bent on obstructing the march, by crowning the heights on either side with his troops.

General Nott meanwhile gallantly held Kandahâr. Throughout the war it is to be noted that the Afghâns never for a moment held their ground in presence of a capable general.

95. **Death of Shâh Shuja.**—The unfortunate Shâh Shuja was murdered in April, at Kâbul.

At this time (April 1842) the Governor-General actually ordered

Pollock and Nott to return direct to India (leaving the national honour unvindicated, and the captives unrescued), but these generals, with Major Rawlinson, evaded compliance with his orders; and eventually they were permitted, at their own risk, to take the noble course they did.

96. Ghazni taken.—General Pollock now moved on by way of Gundamuck, Mammû Khail, Tezin, Kûrd-Kâbul, and Bûthâk to Kâbul, where he arrived on the 15th September. Continual attacks of the enemy were repulsed, and the most decided victories atoned for the disgraces of the British arms on this same route a year before.

General Nott having sent a portion of his troops back to India, by way of Kettah, now marched with the remainder to meet General Pollock at Kâbul. Several smart engagements were fought against Shams-ud-dîn, in which complete and signal success crowned the British arms. Ghaznî was again taken, and its citadel utterly destroyed. The gates of the tomb of Mahmûd of Ghaznî, which had eight centuries before been taken from the temple of Sômnâth, were carried off, and finally deposited among old lumber in the fort at Âgra! Nott joined Pollock at Kâbul, September 5.

97. Recovery of the captives, September 1842.—The prisoners in the hands of Akbar Khân were happily and strangely recovered, and joined Sir Robert Sale at the Urgundî Pass, on the 20th September.

It had been Akbar Khân's intention to take them to Tûrkistân, and there to sell them for slaves, but their keeper, Saleh Muhammad Khân, was bribed to restore them. Sir Robert Sale thus recovered his wife and daughter on his fiftieth birthday.

Great numbers of the Afghâns had retired to Istalîf. Thither the English troops, under General MacCaskill, with an auxiliary force of Kuzzilbash horse, under Captain Colin Mackenzie, followed, stormed the fort, and recovered vast quantities of property stolen from the British in Kâbul. The great bazaar at Kâbul was blown up, an act which can hardly be justified.

98. Settlement of Afghân affairs, 1842.—The army was now

withdrawn from Afghânistân, and arrived without serious molestation at Ferôzpûr. Dôst Muhammad and the other prisoners were released, and the whole scheme was definitely abandoned. It had cost £15,000,000, and 20,000 lives! The war had been undertaken in defiance of the dictates of prudence. One portion of the transaction is humiliating, but the whole leaves on the mind a vivid impression of the indomitable courage and boundless resources of the great majority of the Englishmen whose names appear in the history.

Dôst Muhammad was reinstated immediately. From 1842 to 1855 no intercourse existed between him and the Indian Government. He died in June 1863, leaving sixteen sons. Of these, Shîr Ali, after many struggles, made good his position as Amîr (1868).

99. Troubles in Gwâliôr.—The troubles at Gwâliôr next demand our attention. Doulat Râo Sindia died in 1827.

His widow, daughter of the infamous Shîrzî Khân Ghâtgê, governed as guardian of her adopted son, Jankojî, till 1833, when the latter assumed the actual management. He died, February 1843, childless. His widow, a girl of thirteen, adopted Bhagîrat Râo, a relative, and a contest for the regency commenced between the Mahârânî and Mamâ Sahêb, an uncle of the deceased chief. The Resident espoused the cause of the latter, whom the queen notwithstanding expelled.

It was evident that affairs in Gwâliôr were fast tending to a state of such utter disorganisation as would have disturbed the peace of the surrounding countries. At Lâhôr, too, there was an army of 20,000 Sikhs, officered by Europeans, anxious for some pretext for crossing the Satlaj. The troubles in the Panjâb had begun.

Battle of Mahârâjpûr, December 29, 1843.—The Governor-General rightly judged that prompt interference was necessary. The British troops, accompanied by Lord Ellenborough himself, advanced across the Chambal, and unexpectedly found the Gwâliôr army drawn up at *Mahârâjpûr*. Sir Hugh Gough, the commander-in-chief, had under him Generals Littler, Valiant, and Dennis. A complete victory was gained, but with severe loss.

Punniâr, December 1843.—On the same day another victory was gained at *Punniâr* by Major-General Grey. In these two battles, the guns, standards, ammunition, and treasure of the enemy were taken, and there was nothing left the Gwâliôr durbâr but to throw themselves on the clemency of their conquerors. A council of regency was formed, the British contingent was increased, the debts owed by Sindia's Government to the English were paid, and affairs were put on such a footing as to afford a prospect of stability and tranquillity to the Gwâliôr state.

100. Sind : a summary of its history.—The conquest of *Sind*, and its wise government, by its conqueror, Sir Charles Napier, render this period memorable.

In 1786, Sind was seized by a tribe of Belûchîs called Tâlpûrs, whose chief was Mîr Fatih Khân. By him the country was divided between various members of his family. Thus arose the three states of *Haidarâbâd*, *Khyrpûr*, and *Mirpûr*, in each of which a plurality of Amîrs held sway. These Amîrs, foreigners in the country, dwelt in castles.

Every attempt to trade with the country was discouraged by the Amîrs, who drove away the chief of the British factory from *Tatta*, where an establishment had existed from 1799.

In 1809 a treaty between the Amîrs and Lord Minto had been signed. In 1820 another treaty permitted free intercourse and trade. In 1832 the Indus was thrown open, as the result of Sir Henry Pottinger's mission. In 1838 a British Resident was appointed to *Haidarâbâd*, and the state was thus secured from the attacks of Ranjît Sing.

Sind had always been a dependency of Kâbul, and Shâh Shuja now made demands of arrears of tribute. This led to further British mediation. The Amîrs were certainly in a great measure dependent on England, and yet were her bitter and jealous enemies.

In fact, the Amîrs, who had some cause to complain, seem to have been thoroughly hostile and treacherous; and an attack upon the Residency, which Sir James Outram defended with consummate bravery, brought matters to an issue.

In October 1842, Sir Charles Napier was sent to Sind as com-

mander-in-chief and plenipotentiary, and took measures at once to seize and destroy the desert stronghold of Imán-ghur, whither one of the leading Amírs had fled.

Míani, February 17th, 1843.—Sir Charles then advanced to Míani, a place six miles from Haidarâbâd, where the Sindian army was entrenched. A victory was gained by the British, after which six of the Amírs, three of Khyrpûr and three of Haidarâbâd, surrendered themselves.

Shír Muhammad of Mirpûr was still in arms; and against him the battle of Haidarâbâd (or *Dubba*) was fought on the 24th March, resulting in a complete victory to the British troops. Mirpûr was then occupied, and Umerkôt (the birthplace of Akbar) was captured.

Sind was now taken possession of.

The feeling, however, then prevailed, and posterity will deliberately confirm the opinion, that the war was unrighteous. It is the one annexation upon which the British nation can look with no satisfaction

101. Lord Ellenborough recalled, 1844.—The Earl of Ellenborough returned to Calcutta in February 1844, and set himself vigorously to the task of governing the empire, the bounds of which he had so much enlarged; but in a few months he was recalled by the Court of Directors, from whom he had differed on many points. He left Calcutta in August 1844.

His character.—He was ambitious, fond of display, and self-reliant; but industrious, able, disinterested, a true friend of the army, and a man of undoubted genius.

Mr. Wilberforce Bird.—To Mr. Wilberforce Bird, his second in Council, many useful measures, such as the extinction of slavery in India, are to be ascribed.

LORD HARDINGE, 1844-1847.

102. For the First Punjâb War, see chapter x.

103. Kashmír.—Kashmír was then made over to Golâb Sing, a Râjpût, the most prominent Sikh leader, who paid £1,000,000

of the tribute. His descendant now rules over that province in peace, and measures for the improvement of the country have been adopted at the suggestion of the British Government, and more especially of the late Sir Henry Lawrence.

104. Honours.—Sir Henry Hardinge and Sir Hugh Gough were both raised to the peerage for their gallant exploits.

105. Lord Hardinge's liberal Policy.—Lord Hardinge, while averse to any undue interference with the prejudices of the people of India, promoted education. He also gave his assistance to the project for the Ganges canal, and to the plan for the construction of railways in India.

Inhuman customs put down.—His administration was happily marked by vigorous, and ultimately successful, attempts more completely to put down infanticide, Satî, and human sacrifices. These horrible crimes were still committed in many parts of India; and especially in Gûmsûr and in some other parts of Orissa, and in Gondwâna, among the Khonds and other hill-tribes, the most revolting cruelties were often perpetrated. The chief of these was called the Meriah sacrifice. The Khonds, according to Captain Macpherson's report, were in the habit of sacrificing as many as twenty-five human victims at one festival. These were kidnapped, or bought, and were tortured, with every refinement of cruelty, before being actually sacrificed.

This has now been effectually put down, chiefly by the efforts of those laborious, earnest men, Captain S. C. Macpherson, Colonel Campbell, and their assistants.

106. Encouragement to Trade.—Free-trade was promoted; duties paid for the introduction of merchandise into some of the large towns, such as Lûdiâna, Umbâla, and Sûrat, were abolished; and the real prosperity of the country was promoted by this noble ruler, who was at once a wise and beneficent administrator and a brave and determined warrior.

107. Ancient Buildings.—The Tâj Mahâl at Âgra, and other architectural remains, were at this time repaired and restored; and measures adopted to check the rash and careless habits by

which the many interesting monuments of past times were being destroyed in various parts of the land.

108. The Rârki College.—The Engineering College at Rârki, planned by the benevolent and laborious Lieutenant-Governor of the North-West Provinces, Mr. Thomason, was sanctioned and promoted by Lord Hardinge.

Scarcely any Governor-General has ever gained so much influence over the minds of men in India as this admirable man. He left Calcutta early in 1848, after a government of forty-two months' duration.

EARL OF DALHOUSIE, 1848-1856.

109. His Plans and Policy.—Lord Dalhousie came out as a 'peace Governor,' as many before him had done, whom circumstances hurried into war. When war broke out a second time in the Panjâb, the Governor-General in Calcutta said :—'I have wished for peace ; I have longed for it ; I have striven for it. But, if the enemies of India desire war, war they shall have ; and, on my word, they shall have it with a vengeance.'

The 'Lex loci.'—In October 1849 a modified form of trial by jury was introduced. A law, called the 'Lex loci' was passed, ordaining that no penal consequences should attend the change of religion by any man.

For the Second Punjâb War, see chapter x.

110. The Second Burmese War, 1852.—The Second Burmese War ended in the annexation of Pegu. It arose from the oppression of British subjects by the King of Âva and his officials. The arrogance of the Burmese seems to have suffered no abatement by the first war, though its result was so disastrous to them. However, Commodore Lambert by sea, and General Godwin by land, soon brought the Burmese to their senses. In annexing Pegu (December 21st, 1852), by which the kingdom of Burma was deprived of the whole of its seaboard, Lord Dalhousie, who had entered upon the war with the sincerest reluctance, gave the King of Âva a severe lesson ;

secured a rich province for his country; and threw open a noble river to the trade of the world. Pegu had not been in the hands of these Burma sovereigns more than about a century. The war was concluded June 30th, 1853, after lasting eighteen months, and costing a little less than two millions sterling. The marvellous energy, skill, and forethought with which Lord Dalhousie himself arranged every detail of the expedition astonished all India.

111. Changes in the Panjâb, 1853.—In 1853, the Panjâb Board of Commissioners was abolished, and Sir John Lawrence was made Chief Commissioner, while Sir Henry became agent to the Governor-General at Âjmîr. Infanticide was suppressed by the co-operation of the Panjâb nobles themselves.

A most magnificent system of roads and canals was planned and commenced under Colonel (Sir Robert, and Lord) Napier. Roads extending for 2200 miles, and a grand canal 465 miles in length, will perpetuate the renown of Sir Robert Napier and Lord Dalhousie.

The same year Sir Walter Gilbert (the ‘flying General’ of the Panjâb) and Sir Charles Napier (who assumed the command of the Indian army in May 1846) died; Colonel Mackeson, Commissioner of Peshâwar, was stabbed by an Afghân fanatic; and Mr. Thomason, Lieutenant-Governor of Âgra, just appointed Governor of Madras, was taken away in his fiftieth year.

112. Railways, 1853.—The year 1853 saw the opening of the first Indian railway, from Bombay to Tanna. To Mr. (afterwards Sir Macdonald) Stephenson, who ably carried out Lord Dalhousie’s plans, India is chiefly indebted for the introduction of railways. Their extension since that time has been rapid and most beneficial.

113. Telegraphs.—Telegraphic communication, under the energetic superintendence of Dr. C’Shaughnessey (now Sir William O’Shaughnessey Brooke), began to extend itself, with extraordinary rapidity, over the length and breadth of the land.

114. Nâgpûr affairs.—In December 1853, the Râja of Nâgpûr

died without issue, and having adopted no heir. Lord Dalhousie, as lord paramount, annexed this state, it having lapsed to the power which reorganised it in 1818.

116. Renewal of the Charter, 1853.—The renewal of the Company's Charter, for the last time, occupied the attention of the Imperial Parliament during several months of 1853.

Changes.—The Court of Directors was reduced from twenty-four to eighteen, six of whom were to be appointed by the Crown, civil appointments were thrown open to competition, the Macaulay code was introduced, Bengâl was put under a Lieutenant-Governor, the Company's Sudder Courts were blended with Her Majesty's Supreme Courts at the presidency towns, and a comprehensive system of State education for India was sanctioned. The despatch in which the present system of education was announced has been called 'the intellectual charter of India.'

117. The Ganges Canal, 1854.—Early in 1854, Colonel Cautley's great Ganges Canal, 500 miles long (which had been commenced in Lord Auckland's time), was opened with great ceremony, and its author left India with unanimous applause.

118. Jhânsî and Kerowli, 1854. (Kerâoli.)—The Râja of Jhânsî and the chief of Kerowli both died childless in 1854. The dominions of the former were 'annexed'; we shall see more of Jhânsî affairs. Those of the latter were handed over to Madden Pâl, a new relative of the late chief, by whom it is still well governed. The Mahârâja has been appointed Grand Commander of the Star of India.

119. Events of 1855.—In 1855, a treaty was made with the restored Dôst Muhammad, a loan for public works was opened, and the crime of torturing people to extract evidence, or to compel payment of arrears of taxes—a crime often committed by native officers—was put an end to. Of this last measure, Sir James Lawrence in the Panjâb, and Lord Harris in Madras, were the most zealous promoters. An outbreak of the Santâls among the hill ranges of Râjmahâl was put down only by the proclamation of martial law in the disturbed districts, and the

vigorous measures of General Lloyd. This district is now a non-regulation commissionership.

119. The annexation of Oudh.—The annexation of Oudh is the greatest event of this period. Oudh, by the treaty of 1801, was under the especial guardianship of the British power. It had been shamefully ill-governed. Intervention was a duty of common humanity. Colonel Sleeman urged it, and Lord Dalhousie, with the unanimous concurrence of his council, advised it. The Home Government, going beyond the Indian authorities commanded annexation, and Vajid Ali ceased to reign. The king wept and put his turban into Colonel Outram's hands, but would sign no treaty. He received £120,000 sterling a year. Oudh will require another reference before we close this history.

120. Close of Lord Dalhousie's administration, 1856.—Lord Dalhousie left Calcutta, 6th March 1856, utterly broken down by eight years of unspeakable anxieties and toils. He very closely resembled, but in many points excelled, his great predecessor, the Marquess of Wellesley, who had governed, and mightily extended the British dominions in India fifty years before.

Every part of the empire felt his influence. The Panjâb, Pegu, and Oudh were added to the British dominions. A vigorous and beneficial impulse was given to every department. Every means of improving India, and of communicating to her all the advantages of Western civilisation was adopted.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF LORD CANNING, 1856-1861.

121. Lord Canning.—Lord Canning, the fourteenth Governor-General, and the first Viceroy of British India, succeeded on the 29th February 1856. He was a scholar, a statesman of experience, and a man of wonderful coolness, patience, and firmness.

His administration may almost be said to begin and end with the 'Sepoy War.'

122. The Persian War, 1856-1857.—The Persian War began in November 1856, and was ended by a treaty signed in Paris in March 1857. It was caused by the insolent behaviour of the

Persian Court, which had never forgiven the English for hindering their acquisition of Herât.

The island of Karrack was taken (December 4, 1856). An engagement was fought at Bushair, and, a few days after, Bushair, the object of the expedition, surrendered. The loss of life was very trifling.

123. Treaty with Dôst Muhammad.—An additional treaty was now signed by the old opponent of England, Dôst Muhammad, by which he bound himself to aid the British against Persia, by maintaining an army of 18,000 men, the British Government paying him £120,000 per annum to maintain this army. Sir James Lawrence and Major Edwardes were the main authors of this beneficial arrangement, which had a great effect in disposing the Shâh of Persia to retire from the contest.

124. Sir James Outram in Persia.—The gallant Sir James Outram, the Bayard of India, had now joined the Persian expedition as its commander-in-chief. On the 5th February he drove the enemy from their entrenchments at Barasjûn (forty-six miles from Bushair), and on the 7th the battle of Kûshâb was fought, in which the Persian army was well-nigh annihilated.

Peace with Persia.—Muhamrah, commanding the passage of the Euphrates and the water approach to Ispahân, was taken on the 26th with scarcely any loss. This ended the war, a truce was granted to the prayer of the Persians, and plenipotenaries signed a peace in Paris, March 4, 1857.

The Persians made amends for the slights they had put upon the British power, and formally renounced all claim upon Herât and Afghânistân.

125. China, 1857.—Disturbances now took place in China. The mandarins of Canton were the aggressors, and the Chinese Governor, Yeh, offered a reward for the head of every Englishman. After some severe reprisals on the English part, and two bombardments of Canton, Lord Elgin was sent on a special mission to Peking.

Hearing the news of the troubles in India, he brought up to Calcutta all he could spare of his troops. On his arrival

at Canton, in conjunction with the French plenipotentiary, Baron Gros, he ordered an attack on that city. Yeh was taken prisoner and sent to Calcutta, where he died. The expedition then proceeded to Shanghai, and was nearing Peking, when the childish emperor agreed to treaties with England, France, America, and Russia, by which all commercial privileges were conceded to those powers.

126. The Sepoy Mutiny, 1857.—Now broke out the Sepoy Mutiny. We cannot give its full history, but will sketch an outline, which the student must fill in for himself.

The Bengál native army had been in an unsatisfactory state for some time. Sir Charles Napier had given the warning that the Bengál Sepoys were not to be trusted.

Causes of the Mutiny.—The want of intercourse and sympathy with their men on the part of the European officers, the taking away of authority from the officers commanding regiments, the issue of the Afghán war, a want of firmness in the attitude of the Government towards its Sepoy army, a dread of the violent introduction of Christianity, and of changes affecting their caste and customs, and the annexation of Oudh, from which a great majority of the Sepoys came: all these reasons, and many more, having weight with none but uninstructed minds, rendered the Sepoys ready for revolt.

It was also the centenary of Plassey. A hundred years had been assigned as the duration of the British Ráj, and the hundredth year had come.

127. The first outbreaks.—The mutiny began at Berhâmpûr, in the 19th Regiment, which was disbanded in March 1857.

128. Emissaries of rebellion.—Fakirs and other emissaries were now in every village and bazaar, from the slopes of the Himálayas to Cape Comorin, spreading the most atrocious falsehoods, uttering the wildest prophecies of the downfall of British power, and striving to excite a rebellion. Small flat cakes of flour and water, called *chappatties*, were sent from village to village, and were passed on by the villagers, who only learnt from this token that some great struggle was impending. The English in India were seated over a mine ready to explode.

Nânâ Dhundu Pant.—Meanwhile the adopted son of the late Peshwâ, who lived at Bhitûr, near Khânepûr, was the mainspring of disaffection. His secretary, Azim-ulla-Khân, a plausible miscreant, had been sent to England as the agent of Dhundu Pant, and had been treated there with a foolish consideration, to which he had no right whatever. He and his master now passed hither and thither, lying and plotting. The old King of Delhi and his sons were ready for anything that might give them a chance of restoring the Mogul dominion, forgetting that they owed their very existence to the English, who had saved them from the Mahratta oppressor in 1803.

129. The Conspirators.—The ex-King of Oudh, in Calcutta, was in the conspiracy. Mân Sing, chief of the Pûrbias, from which tribe very many of the Sepoys came, and the members of the families of the dispossessed Mahratta chiefs of Nagpûr and Satârâ, were also in the secret, but the British Government was in profound ignorance of the extent and nature of the danger, and warnings were disregarded.

130. The Outbreak at Mirut, May 10, 1857.—The 10th May witnessed the first great outbreak of the rebellion at Mirut. The mutineers were sentenced to imprisonment for various terms. To rescue them, the whole of the natives in Mirut rose, massacred all they found of European parentage of every class and age, burnt the station, and marched off to Delhi. No adequate effort to check them was made by the old general in command.

131. The Massacre at Delhi.—On the 11th of May the same horrible scenes were enacted in Delhi. The commissioner, Mr. Fraser; the captain of the king's guard, Captain Douglas, Mr. Jennings, the Residency chaplain, and his daughter, were murdered in the palace, in the sight of the king, and, almost certainly, with his sanction.

When the tidings of the Mirut massacre reached Delhi, nine officers, commissioned and non-commissioned, managed to close the gates of the arsenal, the greatest in the north-west of India. They were Lieutenants Willoughby, Raynor, and Forrest; Conductors Shaw, Buckley, and Scully; Sub-Conductor Crow;

Sergeants Edwards and Stewart. Scully fired the train, and was seen no more. Willoughby, their young leader, scorched and crippled, died of his wounds at Mîrut.

132. General insurrections, May 1857.—The occupation of the Mogul capital by the rebels was the signal for risings and massacres in almost every station in Bengâl and the North-west.

133. Lâhôr.—At Lâhôr, Messrs. Montgomery, M'Leod, and Brigadier Corbett disarmed the Sepoys, whose traitorous inclinations were evident, in a prompt and masterly style.

The Panjâb saved.—At Peshâwar, Reid, Cotton, Chamberlain, Nicholson, and Edwardes, communicating with Sir John Lawrence by telegraph, disarmed the native troops; and hung a few native officers, traitors caught in the act. These measures saved the Panjâb.

The 55th N C. at Murdân mutinied. Swift, inexorable, awful punishment followed.

134. Sir John Lawrence comes to the rescue.—Sir John Lawrence had now leisure to come to the rescue of the Cis-Satlaj stations: to save the empire.

The Sikh chiefs, British feudatories, stood nobly and loyally by the paramount power. The ruler of Kashmîr, the Râjas of Jhînd, Kapurthala, and Pattiâlâ; the old Sirdârs, Têj Sing, Shamshîr Sing, Jouâhîr Sing, and many others, raised Sikh troops, and armed their retainers to aid their former foes. Thus fresh relays of troops were constantly sent from the Panjâb to the scene of action.

135. The Khânpûr massacre, June 1857.—The memories of Khânpûr are among the saddest in the history of British India. There, under Sir Hugh Wheeler, aided by Captain Moore, the garrison held out gallantly for three weeks (June 6th to 27th), in wretched buildings, suffering every privation, and surrounded by a vast multitude of savage enemies. They were then inveigled by the miscreants *Dhundu* and *Azîm-ulla* into a surrender. Numbers were shot in the boats which were, as they imagined,

to carry them to Allâhâbâd ; and the others, women and children, were cut to pieces in a small room, and their bodies, still quivering with life, thrown into a well.

136. Neill and Havelock.—Meanwhile two of the most distinguished heroes of the war were on their way to the fatal spot. These were Lieutenant-Colonel James Neill and Sir Henry Havelock. Neill, when the station-master at Howrah would have started the train without some of his soldiers, simply put him under arrest till all had arrived. British troops began to pour into Benâres, and were passed on to the upper provinces. On 17th June Sir P Grant, from Madras, took the place of the Commander-in-Chief, General Anson, who had died of cholera at Kurnâl on the 27th of May.

Benâres was kept safe, under incredible difficulties, by Mr. Carre Tucker, the commissioner, and Mr. Frederick Gubbins, the sessions judge, aided by Sûrat Sing, a loyal State prisoner, Râo Nârâin Sing, the Râja of Benâres, and a few others.

On the last day of June Havelock reached Allâhâbâd, and Neill left for Khânpûr.

Khânpûr.—The battle of Khânpûr was fought on the 16th of July. The Bitûr troops were completely routed. Major Renaud and Captain Beatson, two noble soldiers, died about this time of wounds and cholera.

On the 25th July Havelock marched into Oudh ; and his subordinate Neill was at the same time inflicting condign punishment on the butchers of Khânpûr.

137. Sir Henry Lawrence in Lucknow.—In Lucknow, which he had held (aided by Banks, Inglis, and Fulton); Sir Henry Lawrence was killed, on the 2d July, by the bursting of a shell. In him England lost one of her best, most generous, and heroic men. The defence was maintained by the survivors with equal spirit. It was not till he had three times crossed the Ganges, that Havelock (on the 25th September), after innumerable victories, made his way into Lucknow. The chivalrous Sir James Outram was now in command ; but he waived his right, and entered the city as a subordinate of Havelock, from whom he would not

take the glory of ~~effecting~~ the relief of the city, for which he had undergone so much.

Brigadier-General Neill was killed in the final advance. He was in his forty-eighth year, when his brilliant career thus terminated.

Outram was now master of Lucknow, but he could do nothing more than hold the place.

138. The heroic defence of Arrah.—The defence of Arrah must not be forgotten. This place is on the west of the *Sône*, and a little to the S.W. of *Dinapur*, where three native regiments had mutinied. For a whole week *Arrah* was kept by two gentlemen of the names of Wake and Boyle, with a small band of Sikh and English refugees, against upwards of 3000 rebels. Their fortress was an open bungalow. On the 2d August Major Vincent Eyre gained the brilliant victory of Bibigung, which was followed up by other successes, by which the rebel Koer Sing was driven into the jungles, and that part of the country cleared of rebels.

139. Siege of Delhi.—But the great interest of the rebellion centres in Delhi. On the 8th June, Sir H. Barnard, after a severe action, took possession of the heights near Delhi, and the siege began. The besieged had everything in their favour. The city, thoroughly fortified, was seven miles in circumference. Its defenders were almost countless, and they had an inexhaustible supply of heavy guns and ammunition. The Jamna flowed beneath its eastern wall, and the well-defended bridge over it freely admitted reinforcements and supplies.

The besiegers (more besieged than besieging) were few, sickly, overworked; many of them raw recruits; and their guns did not suffice even to check the enemy's fire. We cannot give the details of those patient, prudent, and valiant operations, which ended in the capture of Delhi on the 20th of September 1857.

There was a great struggle on the centenary of Plassey, 23d June; but the mutineers were triumphantly repulsed. The prophecy had indeed been everywhere confidently uttered that the hundredth year from Plassey, the year 1857, would see the

extinction of the British Rāj. This was said to be founded upon some astrological calculations.

Sir H. Barnard died of cholera on 4th July, and was succeeded by General Archdale. Wilson, Baird Smith, Hodson of the Guides, Nicholson, and Hope Grant, among a multitude of others, distinguished themselves.

140. Muhammad Bahādar Shāh's sons shot.—The King of Delhi was taken prisoner by Hodson, and his two sons and grandson shot.

141. Other places. Sind, Bombay, and Haidarābād.—The rebellion was now really put down. Sind was kept quiet by Sir Bartle Frere and General Jacob. Lord Elphinstone was equal to the emergency in Bombay. The able and patriotic Sir Salar Jung maintained tranquillity in the Nizām's dominions. It was well that the Haidarābād force and the contingent were under such men as General Coffin and Colonel Hill.

The Indôr mutineers were disposed of by Brigadier Greathed's flying column.

Nipalese troops under Sir Jung Bahādar did good service.

142. Lord Clyde's relief of Lucknow.—The relief of Lucknow and the rescue of the garrison by Sir Colin Campbell (afterwards Lord Clyde) was another great event.

Death of Havelock, Nov. 25, 1857.—Sir Henry Havelock died on 25th November, and his name will live as a man of the purest and bravest type.

The Gwālîôr contingent mutinied in the middle of October, dethroning their Rāja; but their triumph was short.

Whitlock's Madras column in Bandêlkhând annihilated the forces of the Rāja of Banda.

Cotton and Edwardes guarded the north-west frontier.

143. Punishment of murderers.—The murderers of English men and women met on all sides with their just punishment, swiftly and inexorably inflicted.

Trial of the last Mogul emperor. Condemnation, deportation, and death, 1858.—Muhammad Bahādar Shāh, the last Mogul, was brought to trial (January 27th to March 9th). He was

skilfully defended; but found guilty of murder, treason, and arson, and was sentenced to transportation for life to Burma. His favourite wife, *Zimat Mahâl*, and his youngest son, *Jamma Bakht*, whom he had designed to succeed him, accompanied him.

In Maulmain he died.

144. Lord Canning's clemency.—Lord Canning was at the time blamed much for his statesman-like and Christian 'clemency;' but justice was done, while vengeance was disclaimed. Lucknow was finally taken, and the re-conquest of Oudh completed in March.

145. Sir Hugh Rose, Jan. 1858.—Sir Hugh Rose, in Central India, made one triumphant, and scarcely paralleled march, from Bombay to Indôr, Sâgar, Jhânsî, Kalpî, and at last to Gwâliôr. His chief opponent was Tantir Tôpî, a Mahratta Brahman, a relative of the Nâna, who was, in fact, a Pindâri leader, ruthless and desperate. Kalpî, the great arsenal of the rebels, was stormed on the 25th May.

Jhânsî.—The strong fortress of Jhânsî, defended by its heroic but cruel Rânî, Lakshmî Bâi, was taken; and she escaped, to fall in battle at the siege of Gwâliôr.

Gwâliôr. Gwâliôr was taken, and the noble young Mâhârâjâ restored, in the middle of June 1858.

Tantia Tôpî.—Tantia Tôpî, the skilful but cruel leader, was taken by Major (now Sir Richard) Meade, tried, and hanged in April 1859, as his share in the Khânpûr massacres deserved. Mân Sing had surrendered himself some days before; and he gave the information which led to the capture of this great criminal, near Parone.

The capture of Tantia Tôpî seemed to extinguish the last spark of the rebellion.

The Nâna.—The Nâna perished, it is supposed, in the Nîpal jungles. The Begum escaped to Katmundû.

146. Oudh.—Lord Canning, in July 1858, declared by proclamation the lands of Oudh forfeited, save in the case of six

loyal landowners, offering indulgence to all who threw themselves on British mercy.

147. Assumption of the Government of India by the Crown.—On the 2d August 1858, a bill received the royal assent, by which British India was placed under the direct authority of the Crown.

The machinery of government in England was to consist of a Secretary of State for India, aided by a Council of fifteen. Eight of these must have served in India for ten years.

The Directors of the East India Company, at one of their last meetings, voted to Sir John Lawrence a pension of £2000 a year, thus nobly closing their wonderful career.

Sir Charles Trevelyan.—Sir Charles Trevelyan, Governor of Madras, who had begun his work with much energy, was removed from his office for his published protest against the income-tax, for the first time introduced into India by Mr. Wilson. The course of events has tended to show that the income-tax is not adapted to India. Sir Charles Trevelyan was succeeded by Sir William Denison, and he again by Lord Napier of Merchiston.

In March 1862, Lord Canning left India, and in June (17th) he died. Cold and haughty in manner, and slow in conception, he was firm and humane. He never for a moment lost his presence of mind during the terrible excitement of the mutinies, and will be remembered as one who loved justice and MERCY.

LORD ELGIN.

148. LORD ELGIN, who had distinguished himself in Canada and in China, took the reins of government, March 12th, 1862. He soon left Calcutta for the North-west Provinces, and died at Dharmsâla, in the Himâlayas, November 20th, 1863.

The Wâhabis, 1863.—Some Wâhabi fanatics at Sittâna, on the extreme north-west of the Panjâb, commenced a petty rebellion, which threatened to spread among the Afghân tribes, and which was evidently supported by traitors in the north-east and south. Every Mogul emperor had to contend with these hill tribes. It

is said that twenty-five English expeditions have at various times been conducted against them.

Sir William Denison.—Sir William Denison, Governor of Madras, had proceeded to Calcutta as Acting Viceroy, and Sir Hugh Rose was Commander-in-Chief. Owing to their firmness, the stronghold of the enemy, at the top of the Umbeyla Pass, was taken, and the mountaineers were, for the time at least, humbled.

At this time the American civil war caused an immense rise in the price of cotton. Western India became suddenly wealthy; but a mania for speculation arose, and the commercial credit of the enterprising capital of the western coast was terribly shaken. Berâr especially has been greatly enriched by cotton cultivation.

LORD LAWRENCE.

149. Sir John Lawrence, 1864.—SIR JOHN LAWRENCE landed again in Calcutta, January 12th, 1864, and retained office till the end of 1869.

His appointment was the reward of past services; but it was also felt, both in England and in India, that the reins of government at that critical period could not be in safer hands than those of the great administrator of the Panjâb.

A great impulse was given during this administration to sanitary reforms, to municipal institutions, and more especially to measures for the improvement of the condition of European soldiers, whose importance in India has so much increased since the mutinies.

War in Bhôtân, 1864-65.—A war, tardily begun, badly conducted, and injudiciously ended, was supposed to avenge the insults heaped by the State and people of Bûtân, or Bhôtân (a small district east of Sikkim), on Mr. Eden, a British envoy.

The year 1866 is remarkable for the famine in Orissa, which is said to have swept away two millions of people. (**Lord Napier of Merchiston.**) While the Government of Bengal failed in its duty at this emergency, Lord Napier, at the head of the Madras Government, nobly did his. The North-west Provinces suffered in the same way, though not so severely, in 1861; and more

recently Rājputāna has added half a million of victims to those sacrificed in Orissa. Such awful calamities, occurring in a time of exceptional prosperity, have excited a deep and abiding feeling of the duty of the Government to be prepared for such emergencies; and they have given an impulse to the various schemes of irrigation by which their recurrence may in part, at least, be avoided. India has always been liable to these terrible disasters at pretty regularly recurring periods.

Bishop Cotton, 1866.—The Bishop of Calcutta, the greatly beloved and admired COTTON, was accidentally drowned while on a tour of visitation. He was succeeded by Dr. Robert Milman.

Sir Richard Temple.—In 1866, Sir Richard Temple became Resident of Haidarābād. He had previously rendered good service as Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces. A distinguishing feature of this period is the number of able and vigorous administrators who, in charge of provinces where scope was permitted them for the exercise of the highest qualities of statesmanship, and where the increased prosperity of the country has altered the conditions of native society, have earned for themselves reputations almost equal to those of Mountstuart Elphinstone, Malcolm, and Munro. The time, however, has not yet come for fairly estimating the value of the labours of Grey, Temple, Strachey, Muir, Durand, Meade, and many others, to whom the present flourishing condition of the country is in a great measure due.

Nor will the future historian of India pass over such names as those of Sir Barnes Peacock, Sir William Mansfield, and Mr. Sumner Maine, who have done such good service in the Council Chamber at Calcutta.

Hazara War, 1868.—Another frontier war broke out during this year. The scene was near that of the former, among the Hussanzye tribe, in the district of Hazara. The same Wāhābi influences were at work.

Sir Alfred Wylde, at the head of a splendid force, in a few days brought the insurgents to terms. The whole question of the north-western and western frontier will yet require consideration.

Afghân affairs, again, at this time became of great importance.

Shîr Ali Khân, son of Dôst Muhammad (who died in 1863), after many struggles, made good his claim to his father's kingdom. England did not interfere. The old fear of Russian aggression still exists in many minds; but while India is well governed, and every effort is made to preserve the Anglo-Indian military establishments in a state of efficiency, Russia may be safely left to do what she can in Central Asia. Her task is sufficiently arduous. The fact that Russia has occupied Bokhâra is, of course, important; but the idea of a Russian invasion of India from the north-west is gradually dying away.

The Second Afghân War, during which Shîr Ali died, and which has just closed with a treaty between the English and Jacob Khân, the present Amîr, was undertaken to give a 'scientific frontier' to the British dominions. 1879.

The Panjâb and Oudh tenancy bills close Sir John Lawrence's administration.

They were passed in a somewhat hurried manner, and were warmly supported by some, and denounced with peculiar vehemence by others. Their effect remains to be seen.

Lord Lawrence in England.—The Viceroy on his retirement was raised to the peerage, and actively employed himself in furthering schemes for the good both of England and India.

(He died in 1879, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.)

EARL MAYO.

150. EARL MAYO was the next Viceroy. His meeting with Shîr Ali, the ruler of Afghânistân, at Umbâla, the visit of the Queen's second son, the Duke of Edinburgh, and the financial embarrassments of the Government of India, were the chief events of the day. The construction of railways was vigorously carried on in every part of the country.

Among the questions agitating the minds of Indian statesmen, the financial one was felt to be all-important.

The income-tax, raised to $3\frac{1}{8}$ per cent. in 1870, was lowered to 1 per cent. in 1871.

The decentralisation, in part, of the Government, by granting greater liberty of action to the subordinate governments, was under consideration.

The department of Public Works was reformed.

The progress of Brahmoism, which is a reform of Brahmanism, somewhat resembling the ancient Buddhistic movement, was marked.

Lord Mayo visited Rangoon in 1872, and was received by the Burmese with great enthusiasm. On his return, he visited Port Blair, the chief town of the Andaman convict settlement, where he was stabbed by an Afghân convict on leaving. The assassin was a convict under sentence of transportation for life. No political motive could be traced.

LORD NORTHBROOK, 1872-1876.

151. Under Lord Northbrook a famine was averted in Bengal, the Governor-General refusing to go to Simla for the hot weather. The Gaekwar of Barôda was deposed, after a trial, for the supposed murder of the Resident, Phayre. In 1875-76, the Prince of Wales visited India, and was received with loyalty everywhere.

LORD LYTTON, 1876-1880.

152. On January 1st, 1877, Her Majesty Queen Victoria was declared Empress of India, at an Imperial Assemblage of all the native Râjas, Rulers, as well as native and European nobles, statesmen, and officials.

In 1876 and 1877 was the terrible famine, due to the failure of the rains; over five million are supposed to have perished. Lord Lytton visited Madras to confer with the authorities. The Government, aided by generous subscriptions in England, did their best to alleviate the suffering. Railways and canals, we hope, have diminished the chances of such awful suffering occurring again.

Afghânistân was the scene of new troubles. Shir Ali Khân imprisoned his eldest son, Yakub Khân, and nominated his younger. He also made secret overtures to Russia, and received

a Russian envoy. In 1878, Lord Lytton sent a friendly mission to Kâbul, which was driven back from the frontier, and war was declared. Shîr Ali fled, his younger son died, and Yakub Khân made peace. Sir Louis Cavagnari was appointed Resident. Within two months he and his officers were murdered. Yakub Khân was found guilty of treachery, and banished to India.

LORD RIPON, 1880-1884.

153. In 1880, Lord Beaconsfield resigned, and Mr. Gladstone succeeded. For the first time, the change of Government was followed by a change of Viceroys and policy. Lord Ripon was determined on peace. The two rivals were Abdur Rahman and Ayoub Khân. In 1880, the English, under General Burrows, were severely defeated at Maiward; but the defeat was immediately retrieved by the magnificent march of General Roberts from Kâbul to Kândahâr—325 miles in 21 days. Abdur Rahman was recognised Amîr, and Ayoub Khân fled to Persia. Lord Ripon devoted himself to various important domestic measures, but these are of too modern date to criticise.

LORD DUFFERIN, 1884-1888

154. He completed the Bengâl Tenancy Bill, begun by the previous Governor-General in 1885, which fixed the rights of tenants and Zâmindârs more clearly. The Third Burmese War broke out in 1885. Theebaw, a monster of cruelty, was king. The English refused to surrender some fugitives. He treated the Resident at Mandalay with scorn, sent envoys to foreign nations, imposed heavy taxes, and demanded a free passage of arms up the Irrawaddy. A force under General Prendergast was sent up the Irrawaddy, and on January 1st, 1886, the territory was annexed; King Theebaw, as a prisoner, having been sent to Madras. Under Lord Dufferin, a peaceful understanding was arrived at between England and Russia as regards the Afghân frontier.

TABLE OF THE GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF BRITISH INDIA,
1774-1869.

I.	WARREN HASTINGS .	1774-1785	First Mahratta War. Haidar.
	MR. MACPHERSON .	1785	Acting. (Mahādajī Sindia.)
II.	LORD CORNWALLIS .	1786-1793	Third Mysōr War. Permanent settlement.
III.	LORD TEIGNMOUTH .	1793-1798	Neutrality. (Oudh. Kūrdlā.)
	[Mr. Shore.]	—	Acting.
IV.	SIR A. CLARKE .	—	Acting.
	MARQUESS WELLESLEY	1798-1805	Fourth Mysōr War. Second and Third Mahratta Wars. Subsidiary System.
	[Lord Mornington.]		
V.	LORD CORNWALLIS .	1805	Peace - at - any - price policy.
	SIR GEORGE BARLOW	1805-1807	Non-intervention. Vellore Mutiny.
VI.	LORD MINTO .	1807-1813	Travancore. Embassies.
VII.	MARQUESS OF HASTINGS	1813-1815	The Pindārī War. Nipal. Mahratta settlement.
	[Earl of Moira.]		
	MR. ADAM .	—	Acting.
VIII.	LORD AMHERST .	1823-1828	First Burmese War. Bhartpār.
	MR. W. B. BAYLEY .	—	Acting.
IX.	LORD W. BENTINCK .	1828-1835	Mysōr. Kūrg. Reforms. Progress. Peace.
	SIR C. METCALFE .	1836	Acting. Freedom of Press.
X.	LORD AUCKLAND .	1836-1842	Afghān Expedition. First Chinese War.
XI.	LORD ELLENBOROUGH	1842-1844	Afghānistān. Sind. Gwālīōr.
XII.	SIR H. HARDINGE .	1844-1847	First Panjāb War. Progress
	MR. BIRD .	—	Acting.
XIII.	THE MARQUESS OF DALHOUSIE .	1848-1856	Second Panjāb War. Second Burmese War. Annexation. Progress.
XIV.	VISCOUNT CANNING .	1856-1862	Mutinies. Extinction of the Company's dominion.
	(First Viceroy.)		
XV.	LORD ELGIN .	1862	
	SIR W. DENISON .	1863	Acting. Border War.

XVI.	SIR JOHN LAWRENCE	1864-1869	Oudh settlement.
XVII.	THE EARL OF MAYO .	1869-1872	Assassinated, Feb. 8, 1872.
XVIII.	LORD NORTHBROOK .	1872-1876	Prince of Wales's Visit.
XIX.	LORD LYTTON . .	1876-1880	Imperial Assemblage at Delhi.
XX.	LORD RIFON . .	1880-1884	Bengal Tenancy Bill.
XXI.	LORD DUFFERIN .	1884-1888	Burmese War.

CHAPTER X

THE PANJAB

1. **Divisions.**—A study of the map will show that the territory historically connected with the Panjâb consists of:—(1) Five Doâbs; (2) the Trans-Indus frontier, or Dêrajât; (3) the Hazara valley; (4) Golâb Sing's territory, or Cashmîr; and (5) the Cis-Satlaj districts.

2. **Cashmîr.**—Cashmîr is an extensive upland plain, situated among the Himâlaya mountains, more than half-way up their height. It is elliptical, and widens toward Islamâbâd. It is about 60 miles from north to south, and 110 miles from east to west. It was once the bed of a large lake, said to have been drained by the Hindû sage Kâsyapa. It is watered by the Jhîlam, which traverses it from east to west. Rice, wheat, barley, and a variety of fruits are produced at different elevations. It is especially famed for its shawls, made from the wool of the Tibetan goat. Saffron is also produced largely there.

Cashmîr had been governed by Hindû chiefs from remote antiquity, but was overrun by Mahmûd of Ghaznî, in A.D. 1012. The Tatâr chiefs held it till it was conquered by Akbar.

Ahmad Shâh Abdâlî next took possession of it. The Afghân governor made himself independent in 1809. In 1846 the British made it over to Golâb Sing.

Its chief towns are Srînagar, on the Jhîlam, and Islamâbâd.

3. **Cis-Satlaj States.**—Intimately related to the Panjâb are the *Cis-Satlaj States*.

(1.) **Pattiâla.**—The first of these is *Pattiâla*, a protected state.

(2.) **Jhind.**—*Jhind* is also a protected state. The Râja, Surûp Sing, was faithful in 1857.

(3.) **Nabha.**—*Nabha* (or *Nabba*) is the third protected state.

(4.) The British territory on the south of the Satlaj has been divided into five districts:—(a) Ferôzpûr, (b) Lûdiâna, (c) Umbâla, (d) Tanêshwar, (e) Simla.

SUMMARY OF PANJÂB HISTORY TO THE RISE OF RANJÎT SING.

4. Darius and Alexander in the Panjâb. B.C. 1518. B.C. 327.—The accounts of the conquest of the Panjâb by Darius, and by Alexander the Great, are the first glimpses of authentic Indian history afforded us.

Pôrus.—In the time of Alexander, *Pôrus*, who was the principal chief, possessed but one-eighth of the whole of the Panjâb. It was occupied by a multitude of petty rulers.

5. Bactrians.—The Panjâb was after this under the Bactrian kings.

6. Muhammadans.—Muhâlib, in A.D. 664, and Kâsim, in 711, conquered Mûltân, but seem to have advanced no further.

7. Jeipâl, A.D. 1001. Lâhôr occupied by Muhammadans, A.D. 1022.—The next person connected with Panjâb history is Jeipâl. He is called King of Lâhôr, but was probably a Râjpût king of Delhi, who had annexed Lâhôr to his dominions.

8. Lâhôr the Muhammadan capital.—Masâud II. resided at Lâhôr, and there Khûsrû Malik, the last of the race of Mahmûd of Ghaznî, died in 1186.

9. The Gakkars.—The Gakkars took Lâhôr in 1203, but were expelled by Muhammed Ghôrî, who conquered the whole of the Panjâb.

10. Under Delhi.—For centuries the Panjâb was subject to Delhi, and became the battlefield where the Moguls and Afghâns fought for the possession of India. Its viceroys often rebelled, but it was not till 1414 that one of these, Khizr Khân, usurped the supreme power, and reigned in Delhi, nominally as a viceroy of Tamerlane.

11. The Lôdis, A.D. 1450.—The Lôdis were from the Panjâb. Daulat Khân Lôdi, the Viceroy of the Panjâb, united with Bâber to invade India.

Lâhore was taken and burnt, as the preliminary to the Mogul conquest of India.

12. Under Kâmrân.—The Panjâb was yielded by Humâyûn to his brother Kâmrân, who was compelled to cede it to Shîr Shâh, and flee to Kâbul. Shîr Shâh then founded Rôhtas, which he named after his favourite stronghold between the Ganges and the Sône.

13. The Sûrs, 1551.—Sikander Sûr, a nephew of Shîr Shâh, proclaimed himself king of the Panjâb in 1554, but was driven into Sirhind by the returning Humâyûn, who took possession of Lâhore early in 1555.

14. Akbar was compelled to repel several invasions of the Panjâb made by his brother Mirza Hâkim, and in 1581 Râja Bhagavân Dâs, Akbar's brother-in-law, was made viceroy.

Cashmîr was conquered by Akbar in 1586. The tribes who occupy the hills around the plain of Peshâwar, the Yusufzyes and Rosheniyes, gave much trouble, and were never thoroughly repressed.

15. The Sikhs.—The SIKH name gives the Panjâb its greatest interest. The Sikhs have been the worthiest antagonists, and are now among the firmest friends of the paramount power. (See under Shâh Âlam I., ch. iii.)

16. The Panjâb under the Afghâns, 1751.—In 1738 an invading army again marched through the Panjâb, under Nâdir Shâh, and again five times under the Afghân, Ahmad Khân, of the Abdâlî or Durâni tribe, in 1747-1759. In 1751 the province was finally severed from the Mogul empire.

THE PANJÂB UNDER RANJÎT SING.

17. The Sikhs and Ranjît Sing in 1808-9.—The British Government first came into contact with the Sikhs in 1808-9. The chiefs then applied to the Governor-General to protect them from the encroachments of Ranjît Sing.

18. The early history of Ranjit Sing.—**RANJIT SING** was born November 2, 1780, and died 27th June 1839. He first rose into importance in 1798, when he recovered some guns for Zemân Shâh, which had been lost in the Jhîlam. He was then appointed Governor of Lâhore, by the Afghân monarch, in his eighteenth year.

In 1803 he proposed to Lord Lake to form a defensive and offensive alliance, on condition that the territory occupied by the Sikhs south of the Satlaj should be made over to him. This was declined.

19. Charles Metcalfe in Lâhore, 1809.—When the Sikh Sirdârs of Jhînd, Kytul, and Pattiâla appealed for protection to Lord Minto, Mr. Metcalfe was sent as an ambassador to Lâhore.

20. Râpar, 1831. The Indian 'Field of the Cloth of Gold.'—In 1831 Lord William Bentinck had an interview with Ranjit Sing at Râpar, on the Satlaj, conducted with extraordinary pomp and magnificence, when an assurance of perpetual amity was given him by the Governor-General. Till his death, which occurred while he was co-operating with the British in the ill-fated attempt to restore Shâh Shuja to the dominion of Afghânistân, he maintained an undeviating course of friendly conduct towards the British Government. His army numbered 82,000 men. His artillery consisted of 376 guns, and as many swivels. He was the most remarkable ruler in the East in his day.

THE FIRST PANJÂB WAR.

21. Ranjit's successors, 1839-1845.—The death of 'the Lion of the Panjâb' was the signal for strife and confusion. The chiefs he had held in subjection, and the kinsmen who aspired to succeed, began to contend in the usual method of Eastern kingdoms.

I. Kurruk Sing, 1840.—Kurruk Sing, an imbecile, succeeded. He died on the 5th of November 1840, after a reign of four months, not without suspicion of poison. (**II. Nihâl Sing.**) His son, Nihâl Sing, was killed (by a supposed accident) on the day of his accession; (**III. Shîr Sing**) and an uncle, Shîr Sing, seized

the reins of government, aided chiefly by **Dian Sing**, the favourite minister of **Ranjit**. This man, in 1843, caused both **Shir Sing** and his son to be assassinated, and anarchy ensued till 1845, (**IV. Dhulip Sing**) when, after many bloody episodes, **Dhulip Sing**, son of **Ranjit Sing**, by his favourite wife, **Rani Jindan**, was acknowledged as 'Muhâraj,' **Hia Sing** being prime minister, and the **Sudâis**, or chiefs, constituting themselves a council.

22 In 1845 the most prominent persons there were **Golâb Sing** of **Jamû**, **Lâl Sing**, the paramour of **Chand Kowr** (widow of **Kuruk Sing**), and her brother, **Jowher Sing**, and **Chatter Sing**, the commander of the forces. After several massacres **Lâl Sing** became **Vazir**.

23 **The First Panjâb War**—On the 11th of December 1845, the Sikh army began to cross the **Sutlej**, and took up a position not far from **Feroz pûr**. On the 13th of December 1845, **Sir Henry Hurdingle** issued a proclamation, and **THE FIRST PANJÂB WAR**, which lasted exactly two months, commenced.

24 **I Mûdki, December 18, 1845**—The first battle took place between the **Umbâla** and **Lâdhîna** divisions of the British army, and the Sikhs under **Lâl Sing**. The armies met at **MûDKI**, about twenty miles from **Feroz pûr**. (**Lord**) **Gough's** army consisted of 11,000 men, and the Sikhs had 30,000 men, with forty guns. The Sikhs were defeated after a short and sharp conflict, losing seventeen guns. The English had 215 killed and 657 wounded. The charge of the British infantry soon decided the battle. **Sir R. Sike** and **Sir J. McCaskill**, brother heroes of the **Afghân** war, fell in this battle.

25 **II Feroz Shâh, December 21, 1845**—On the next day the Governor General, who had joined the camp, waving his rank as Governor General, placed himself as second under **Sir Hugh Gough**. **Sir John Littler**, from **Feroz pûr**, with 5000 troops, now joined the main body, and a combined attack was made upon the Sikh encampment at **FEROZ SHÂH**, about ten miles from **Mûdki**, and about the same distance from **Feroz pûr**. On the 21st December the whole British army began the assault.

an hour before sunset, and during that remarkable night the English and the Sikhs were mingled on the battlefield in utter confusion.

Gough, Hardinge, and their brave subordinates, were not men to speak of retreat. At daybreak Hardinge placed himself at the head of the left, and Gough rode at the head of the right wing, and by one rapid, daring movement, drove the enemy out of their encampment, and from the village of Ferôz-Shâh. Seventy-three cannon had been taken. Six hundred and ninety-four of the British army had, however, been killed, and 1721 wounded. The British army was too much exhausted to pursue.

Later in the day, Tāj Sing, with a fresh body of troops, came down upon the exhausted British force. But the Sikhs, awed by the resolute demeanour of their opponents, suddenly retreated, and the field was won. The Sikhs had suffered terribly, but the loss of the British was also very great; and it was generally felt that the English had purchased the victory at too dear a rate.

26, There was now a pause. For a month the British force lay all but inactive, waiting for reinforcements and supplies; while the Sikhs again crossed the Satlaj, in front of Lûdiâna, with a train of seventy pieces of artillery.

27. III. **Alîwâl, January 28th, 1846.**—On the 28th January was fought the decisive battle of ALÎWÂL. Sir Harry Smith, with a small body of troops, had been sent towards Lûdiâna to deter the increasing bodies of Sikhs from crossing the Satlaj. In this march he was encountered by a body of the enemy under Golâb Sing, at *Buddowâl*, and was not able to attack them, though he suffered severely from their fire. This was looked upon by the Sikhs as a victory. Sir Harry marched out and attacked them at Alîwâl. The Sikhs had been disciplined by General Avitabile, and their gunners were especially efficient. Yet they were driven into the river by the steady advance of the British soldiers, who hemmed them in. They lost fifty-six guns, and all their stores of every kind. This victory determined the Muhammadan chiefs on the Cis-Satlaj borders, who now openly hailed the defeat of their Sikh oppressors. (Golâb

Sing.) Golâb Sing, too, began to negotiate with the British authorities.

28. IV. Sobráon, February 10th, 1846.—It only remained for the British to force the passage of the Satlaj, and to take possession of the Panjâb. The Sikhs entrenched themselves at SOBRÁON, on both banks of the Satlaj. Their camps were connected by a strong bridge of boats, that seemed to say the Sikhs were still determined to maintain a position in British territory. They had one noble leader, the aged Shâm Sing.

Sir Harry Smith now joined the Commander-in-Chief; and a siege-train from Delhi having arrived, Sir Hugh drew out his forces crescent-wise along the whole Sikh front, and the battle began before dawn on the morning of February 10th. After a terrific cannonade, kept up for three hours, and replied to with equal energy by the Sikh batteries, it was determined to carry the entrenchments at the point of the bayonet. This was done. Shâm Sing, of Attari, in white garments, devoted himself to death, and fell at length on a heap of his countrymen. After two hours of close fighting, the wreck of the Sikh army was in full retreat across the river, Eight thousand of these gallant but unfortunate and misguided men fell either in the battle or in the attempt to cross the river. The British had 320 killed, and 2063 wounded. Sir R. Dick fell at the head of his men. Sir Henry Hardinge was to be seen riding about in the hottest of the fire. The Panjâb now lay at the mercy of England.

29. The Panjâb occupied, 1846.—On the 13th February the whole British force crossed the Satlaj; and on the 14th a proclamation was issued taking possession of the Panjâb, and announcing the terms on which its occupation would be relinquished. These were marked by moderation and wisdom.

The Terms—Annexation.—(1) The Jullindhur Doâb between the Satlaj and the Biâs was annexed.

(2) Cashmir and Hazara were retained by the conquerors.

(3) Dhulip Sing was to be sovereign of Lâhôre, under a council of regency; and a British Resident was appointed till September 4th, 1854, when the young Mahârâja would attain the age of sixteen years.

(4) A million and a half sterling was to be paid as part indemnity for the expenses of the war.

(5) A British force was left in Lâhore for the protection of the Mahârâja.

(6) Golâb Sing, the Râja of Jumû, the chosen minister of the Khâlsâ, was appointed Râja of Cashmîr, on the payment of one million sterling. The final arrangement was ratified by the Governor-General on the 26th December 1846.

First Treaty of Lâhore.—This treaty was signed at Lâhore, but is often called the treaty of Byrowâl.

30. Honours.—The thanks of both houses of Parliament were voted to the gallant army. Sir Henry Hardinge and Sir Hugh Gough were raised to the peerage, and Sir Harry Smith was made a baronet. General Gilbert was knighted. A donation of twelve months' batta was also given to the troops. The Governor-General, after arranging these matters, left Lâhore in January 1847.

Chând Kowr and Lâl Sing, 1847.—In 1847 a rebellion broke out in Cashmîr against Golâb Sing. The instigator was discovered to be Lâl Sing, the infamous paramour of Chând Kowr. He was sent to the fort of Âgra. Chând Kowr herself was sent a prisoner to Shaikpura, twenty-five miles from Lâhore, in August 1847, as her constant intrigues destroyed the peace of the kingdom.

THE SECOND PANJÂB WAR.

31. Sir Frederic Currie.—In March 1848 Sir Frederic Currie succeeded Sir Henry Lawrence as Resident at Lâhore. At the same time, Mûlraj, the Governor of Mûltân, was negotiating to be relieved from his arduous duties; and Sirdâr Khân Sing, accompanied by Mr. Vans Agnew, a Bengal civilian, and Lieutenant Anderson, proceeded thither to be installed as his successor. These two were assassinated.

32. Mûltân.—*Mûltân*, so often mentioned in this history, was a city celebrated for its strength.

Lalla Mûlrâj was governor of the district of Mûltân in 1848. It had been resolved to replace him by Sirdâr Khân Sing, and this was believed to be agreeable to Mûlrâj himself, as well as to all the Sikhs; but the Sikh soldiery joined with Mûlrâj, and were induced to revolt. The result was an outbreak, and the murder of Messrs. Vans Agnew and Anderson. A holy war against the Feringhis was now proclaimed. Bhâwal Khân, of Bhâwalpûr, stood firm as the English ally. Colonel Cortlandt (commanding at Dêra Ismael Khân) and Lieutenant Herbert Edwardes, whose energy and determination speedily gave him the lead, raised a few Sikhs and Patâns, and joining their forces on the 20th May won the hard-fought battle of Kineri, on the Chinâb, about twenty miles from Mûltân, on the anniversary of Waterloo, 1848.

Battle of Suddosam, July 1st, 1848.—The victory of Suddosam, July 1st, gained by Edwardes, Cortlandt, and Lieutenant Lake, shut up Mûlrâj in his fort, which was invested; but troops and guns were wanting for the capture of a strong fort a mile in circumference.

General Whish before Mûltân.—It was not till the 5th of September that a field force, with a siege train, under the command of Major-General Whish, commenced in earnest the siege of Mûltân. The success of the siege was delayed for a while by the treachery of Râja Shîr Sing, who, with 5000 men, went over to the enemy. General Whish, safely and commodiously encamped about seven miles off, was compelled to wait for reinforcements; and the Sikhs in Mûltân were, in fact, in a safe prison.

33. The whole Panjâb rises.—Meanwhile the whole Panjâb had risen. Chattar Sing was offering to restore Peshâwar to Dôst Muhammad as the price of aid from Afghânistân, and Golâb Sing was waiting to see which side was likely to gain. Major George Lawrence was taken prisoner at Peshâwar, and Colonel Abbott was besieged in Attock.

34. The Second Panjâb War.—The Sikh chiefs were not satisfied with their previous trial of strength. A wide-spread conspiracy, which had long existed in the Sikh army, speedily

developed into the SECOND PANJÂB WAR, which lasted till February 1849. The storming of Mûltân (January 3d, 1849), the questionable victory of Chillianwallah (January 13th, 1849), and the complete and decisive success at Gujarât (February 21st, 1849), led to the final annexation of the Panjâb (March 29th, 1849). An army, headed by Lord Gough, speedily marched past Lâhore, across the Ravi, and encamped on the further bank. The Sikhs were in force at Râmnagar, and it was desirable to drive them across the Chinâb. This was done; but in a splendid cavalry charge, Colonel Havelock, of the 14th Dragoons, and General Cureton were killed. It was 'a victory where nothing was gained.'

35. Storming of Mûltân, January 3d, 1849.—Meanwhile, at Mûltân, an attack of Mûlrâj upon General Whish's encampment was repelled, with immense loss to the enemy, by Edwardes, Cortlandt, and Markham; and reinforcements having arrived from Bombay, the siege was renewed. On the 27th December 1848, a combined attack was made on the city, which was stormed, after some days of continuous fighting, on the 3d January, when, after a determined resistance, Mûlrâj surrendered the citadel itself.

36. Chillianwallah, January 12th, 1849.—On the 10th Lord Gough's army moved on, and on the 12th came in sight of Shîr Sing's army, near the now famous *Chillianwallah*. Here, at 3 P.M., on a most unfavourable ground, amid jungles and brushwood, was fought a battle, of which the plan had never been arranged, and in which any but British troops must have been defeated. The enemy were driven off the field, and forty guns taken; yet at nightfall General Gough had to retire a mile to a convenient camping-ground. The loss of the British troops was unequalled in any of their Indian battles, being 38 officers, 53 sergeants or havildars, and 511 privates. The wounded were 1600 of all ranks. The loss of the Sikhs trebled that of the English. Shîr Sing, however, fired a royal salute from the neighbouring heights of Rasûl that evening, and claimed the victory.

Public opinion in India and England now grew very excited,

and Lord Gough's rashness was the theme of every conversation. Sir Charles Napier was appointed to supersede him; and, with half a day's notice, was on his way to India. But ere the news of Chillianwallah had reached England, the decisive and almost bloodless battle of Gujarât had shown how the preceding battle had weakened the gallant foe.

37. Instead of retiring on the Jhîlam, the Sikhs had taken possession of the village of Gujarât.

Gujarât, February 20th, 1849.—Here, on the morning of 20th February 1849, Lord Gough, with an army of 24,000 men, and ninety guns, met for the last time the Sikh army. The battle of Gujarât completed the overthrow of the Khâlsâ. Lord Gough himself led on the right, and Sir Joseph Thackwell the left wing of the army. More use was made on this occasion of artillery, the terrible effect of which has seldom been more seen than in this battle. The Sikhs fought bravely, but were driven from the field in utter confusion, and pursued for fourteen miles by the British cavalry. By the evening of the 21st fifty-six guns had been taken. The Sikh standards, camp equipage, and stores all fell into the hands of the victors, who lost only 92 killed and 700 wounded. General Gilbert, the 'flying general,' steadily followed up the fugitives, until, on the 8th March, Shîr Sing himself came into the camp. On the 14th, at Râwal Pindî, the same scene was repeated, until more than 16,000 had surrendered. On the 17th Gilbert was at Attock, and thence he pursued Dôst Muhammad's flying troops past Peshâwar to the mouth of the Khaibar Pass.

38. **The annexation of the Panjâb.**—The annexation of the whole country of the Five Rivers was the natural and necessary result. On the 28th March, the Mahârâja Dhulip Sing signed in open durbar the treaty which conveyed the realms of Ranjit to the British. A pension of fifty thousand pounds per annum was given to the young Râja.

The Kôh-i-nûr.—Among other spoils, the Kôh-i-nûr (hill of light), the largest diamond in the world, was taken and set aside for the Queen of England.

Second Treaty of Lâhore.—This treaty may be called the second treaty of Lâhore.

The fate of the Panjâb leaders.—The Sikh leaders were still restless and treacherous, and eventually were sent to Fort William, where they remained in arrest for some years. Mâlraj was tried for the murder of Vans Agnew and Anderson, and found guilty, but his sentence was commuted to imprisonment for life.

39. The famous Panjâb Commission.—The Governor-General had now to arrange the details of a new system of government for the Panjâb. It was made what is called a 'non-regulation' province; a Commission, consisting of Sir Henry Lawrence, Mr. John Lawrence (since Governor-General of India), Mr. Mansell, and Mr. Montgomery, being appointed, to which the administration of the country was intrusted. Assistants, civil and military, were placed in the five circles of Lâhore, Jhîlam, Mûltân, Leia, and Peshâwar. The whole number of covenanted and commissioned officers was eighty-four.

40. The Chief Commissioner, Sir John Lawrence, 1853-1858.—In February 1853, it was judged desirable to replace this Board of Commissioners by a Chief Commissioner, and Sir John Lawrence was appointed to that office, which he filled till the assumption of the government of India by the Crown.

The Panjâb during the mutinies.—The history of the Panjâb and its rulers during the rebellion of 1857 must be read in chapter ix.

The present Government.—It has now a Lieutenant-Governor, and the province of Delhi has been added to its jurisdiction.

CHAPTER XI

THE HISTORY OF MYSORE

GEOGRAPHY OF MYSORE

1. Boundaries of Mysore.—Mysore (prop. *Maisûr*) is bounded on the north-west by the Collectorate of Dhârwar, on the north and east by the Haidarâbâd Ceded Districts, on the south by the Collectorates of South Arcot, Salem, and Coimbatôr, and on the west by Kanara, Malabâr, and Kûrg.

It is a table-land, with a general elevation of 2000 feet above the level of the sea, having several hills of granite, gneiss, and hornblende, rising in isolated grandeur, and crowned with forts. Such are Nandidrûg (4856 feet) and Saverndrûg (4004 feet).

It is divided into three districts :—

(1.) Bangalore ; (2.) Ashtagrâm, of which Mysore is the chief town ; (3.) Nagar.

Many rivers rise in and about Mysore :—

(1.) The Câvéri rises in Kûrg. Srîngapatam is on an island in its course.

(2.) The Tînga and the Bhadra, whose union forms the Tûmbhadra, and the Hugrî, a tributary of the Tûmbhadra, rise in the Ghâts between Nagar and Kûrg. The Pennâr and Pâlâr rise near Nandidrûg.

HISTORY OF MYSORE TO THE RISE OF HAIDAR.

FROM 1507 TO 1760.

2. Ancient Capitals.—The whole Karnâataka country was in ancient times under Ballâla sovereigns, who were overthrown by Malik Kâfûr in 1310. The capital was then Dwâra Samudra.

Its ruins are at Halâbid, 100 miles north-west of Seringapatam. Tonûr (or Yâdavâpuri) then became the capital.

3. Châm Râj, the six-fingered, 1507.—The earliest authentic account of any settled government in the country after this is the history of a Râja or Zamîndâr called (Kam, or) Châm Râj, the six-fingered, who possessed a part of the country in 1507.

4. Foundation of Mysore, 1524.—His successor, Betad Châm Râj, in 1524, divided the little sovereignty among his three sons; of whom the youngest, Châm Râj the Bald, became master of the site of the present city of Mysore, where a fort was erected and called Mahisasura, from a buffalo-headed demon, said to have been slain by the wife of Siva. This is the origin of the name Mysore.

5. The fall of the great Hindû city of Bijanagar in 1565, rendered the infant Mysore state independent.

Rises as Bijanagar falls.—The rulers of the various Muhammadan states did not at that time pay any attention to the petty kingdoms in the south.

The expelled Bijanagar princes for a time took up their abode at Seringapatam, where they kept up a kind of state.

6. Râj Udeiyâr.—Gradually the portions of the divided territory were re-united, but it was Râj Udeiyâr (or *Wadeyâr*) (died in 1617), who, after completing the reunion, extended the limits and greatly consolidated the power of the kingdom.

Seringapatam, 1610.—Seringapatam became the seat of the government in this reign, the Bijanagar dynasty having become extinct. This Râja was at that time the chief Hindû prince south of the Kishna.

7. Kantî-Rava Narsa Râj, 1640-1659.—The greatest of his descendants was Kantî-Rava Narsa Râj (1640-1659), who repelled an invasion of Mysore by the Bijapûr state, added to the fortifications of Seringapatam, established a mint, made war with Madura, and annexed several of the neighbouring petty states.

8. Mysore between the Dakhan kingdom and the Mahrattas,

1659-1704.—The crown now passed to a distinct branch of the royal family. The two next kings were Dodda (*Senior*) Dêo Râj (1659-1672), and Chick (*Junior*) Dêo Râj (1672-1704).

Mysore, now a considerable state, had to contend with the Muhammadan power in the Dakhan, then in its zenith, as well as with the rising Mahrattas.

Chick Dêo Râj, 1672-1704.—Sivaji possessed Ginji and Vellore, while Tanjore, Bangalore, and other places, not far off, were in the hands of other Mahratta chiefs. Chick Dêo Râj prudently avoided all contact with the belligerent parties, and set himself to bring his own feudatories into absolute subjection.

His government was most despotic, and his exactions drove many villagers to the neighbouring Nilagiri hills, where their descendants dwell, under the name of Burghers, or Badagas (*people from the north*). He put down all opposition, however, by an indiscriminate massacre of the Jangam priests.

He bought Bangalore from the Tanjore Râja (Êkoji or Venkaji) for the small sum of three lakhs of rupees, and obtained from Aurungzib the title of Râja, with the privilege of sitting on an ivory throne. This throne still exists.

9. The powerful Ministers, 1731.—The next two Râjas were Kantî-Râva II. and Dodda Kistna, both imbecile. The result was the virtual sovereignty of the two ministers, Dêo Râj and his cousin, Nandi-Râj.

They may be said to have completely usurped all the functions of government before 1731, and they actually deposed and imprisoned the next Râja, Châm Râj.

10. Invasions of Mysore.—In 1733 Mysore was invaded by Dôst Âli, Nawâb of the Carnatic: he was, however, defeated by Dêo Râj, whose cousin, the first Nandi Râj, had died shortly before. Nizâm-ul-Mulk now demanded tribute at the head of an army (1743), and Dêo Râj thought it better to submit.

11. Nandi Râj the Younger.—Dêo Râj had a younger brother, called also Nandi Râj, to whom he now made over the virtual sovereignty. This Nandi Râj (the second) to strengthen his

position, married a daughter of the titular king, Chick Kistna Râj. We find him aiding Muhammad Ali in 1752.

12. Haidar's first appearance.—In 1749, Nandi Râj undertook the siege of Dêonhalli, where Haidar Naik, then a comparatively young man, distinguished himself as a volunteer. From this time this remarkable person is the most prominent figure in the history.

13. Mysore humbled and distracted by dissensions, 1756.—In 1755, Dêo Râj was compelled to pay a tribute of fifty-six lakhs of rupees to Salâbat Jung, who was aided by Bussy. There was now a quarrel between the brothers regarding the treatment of the young Râja, whom they kept in a state of splendid captivity.

FROM THE USURPATION OF HAIDAR TO THE CONCLUSION OF HIS FIRST WAR WITH THE ENGLISH.

1760-1769.

14. Haidar Ali.—It was now time for some strong hand to grasp the reins, and Haidar Ali stood ready. The history of Mysore henceforth is the history of this daring adventurer, and that of his son.

In 1760 Haidar made himself master of the kingdom.

He was the grandson of a religious mendicant from the Panjâb, and the son of a brave cavalry officer. He was born at (or near) Kolâr in 1702, entered the Mysore service at the age of thirty, and was soon promoted to the command of 50 horse and 200 infantry, with authority to augment his forces as he could. He was then put into command in the Dindigal district, where by plunder, deceit, and cunning he obtained large funds and a considerable army.

He now induced the minister, Nandi Râj, to resign, and had then only the Queen-mother, the young Râja, and their general, Khandi Râo, to contend with.

Contest with Nandi Râj, 1761.—After a smart engagement, in which he was defeated, and some wily negotiations, Haidar at last, in June 1761, received from the Râja a formal renuncia-

tion of the kingdom, three lakhs a year being assigned to the Râja for his support, and one lakh to Nandi Râj. The latter personage, being detected afterwards plotting against Haidar, was consigned to perpetual imprisonment.

15. Taking of Bednore, 1763.—Haidar now attacked and took Bednôre, where he found immense treasures, which materially aided him in his rise. He afterwards reduced the whole province, which was before this under a Nâyakan Râja.

16. Contest with Mâdu Râo, 1765.—In 1765, the warlike Mâdu Râo determined to chastise the audacious Mysore usurper, who had now 20,000 horse and 40,000 foot soldiers under his banners.

Haidar was signally defeated by the Mahratta hero, and was compelled to relinquish his new conquests, and to pay thirty-two lakhs of rupees.

Ragobâ, the uncle and guardian of Mâdu Râo, was the mediator between the young Peshwâ and Haidar.

Haidar seemed to rise more powerful after each overthrow.

17. Malabâr.—In 1766, he invaded Malabâr and took Calicut, the Râja of which burnt himself in his palace to avoid captivity.

18. Triple confederation against Haidar.—A confederacy against Haidar was now formed by the Mahrattas and the Nizâm, into which, unfortunately, the Madras Government was drawn, by the terms of its treaty with the Nizâm.

The Mahrattas, under Mâdu Râo, without waiting for their allies, passed the Kishtna, and began to plunder, but were bought off by Haidar.

The First Mysore War, 1766-1769.—The Nizâm was also bribed by Haidar, not only to forsake the confederacy, but to join in an attack on the English. Colonel Smith, who commanded the British contingent, thus found himself with about 7000 troops and sixteen guns opposed to an army of 70,000 with one hundred guns.

Battles of Changâma and Trinomali, September 3, 26, 1767.

•—He defeated them, however, at *Changâma* (Singarpetta) and *Trinomali*, taking sixty-four guns, and killing 4000 of the enemy.

19. Tippû.—It was at this time that Haidar's son, Tippû, then seventeen years of age, was employed with a body of 5000 horse in plundering up to the very gates of Madras.

20. British treaty with the Nizâm, 1768.—The Nizâm sought for peace, his territories having been invaded by a Bengâl force under Colonel Peach. A peace was signed in 1768, which was in every way discreditable to the Madras Government. In this treaty Haidar was referred to with extreme contempt, as a rebel and usurper, and it was stipulated that the English should take the Carnatic Bâlaghât from him, and hold it under the Nizâm.

21. Haidar triumphant on the Western Coast.—A British force from Bombay now invaded the Western Coast, destroyed the Mysore fleet, and took Mangalôre and Honôr. Haidar, however, soon drove the assailants away, and the British commander abandoned even his wounded, 260 in number, to the Mysorean's fury.

22. Reverses.—The war in the *Baramahâl* and Carnatic was pushed on, however, by Colonel Smith, with such energy and success, that Haidar lost eight of his principal forts and all the mountain passes, and was prepared to make considerable sacrifices for peace. The Madras Government foolishly declined. The tide turned: Colonel Smith had been superseded, and Haidar recovered in six weeks all he had lost, and ravaged the Carnatic almost unchecked. The Madras Council now, in their turn, sued for peace. Smith was again put at the head of the army, and kept Haidar at bay. But the wily Mysorean, sending his guns, baggage, and infantry back, advanced with unexampled rapidity, with 6000 chosen cavalry, to within a few miles of Madras.

Haidar dictates a peace, 1769.—Here he dictated a peace, on the basis of a mutual restitution of conquests, with the stipulation, that 'in case either of the contracting parties should be attacked, they should mutually assist one another to drive out the enemy.'

Thus ended, in disgrace to the English, the **FIRST MYSORE WAR, 1766-1769.**

FROM THE CONCLUSION OF THE FIRST MYSORE WAR
TO THE DEATH OF HAIDAR.

1769-1782.

23. Chêrkûli, March 5, 1771.—Haidar now resolved again to defy the Mahrattas, who were commanded by Trimback Mamâ. The result was an overwhelming defeat at Chêrkûli, and he was soon shut up in Seringapatam.

24. Haidar, in his distress, applied, but in vain, for the promised assistance of the Madras Government, and he was at last obliged to purchase the departure of the Mahrattas by a payment of thirty-six lakhs of rupees, the promise of an annual tribute of fourteen lakhs, and the cession of territory to an extent that reduced the kingdom to almost its original size (1772).

Haidar never forgave the English for this.

25. His savage conduct in Kûrg.—The troubles of the Mahratta Confederacy gave the indomitable Mysorean time to recover himself. He attacked Kûrg, and, the people making a noble resistance, he treated them with savage ferocity.

Before the end of 1776 he had regained all the lost territory, and had, moreover, taken Bellârî (or Bellary), Gûti, and Savanûr. By 1778 the Kishtna was his northern boundary, and in 1779 he annexed Kûrpa.

With these acquisitions the Mysore dominion had now reached its utmost extension.

26. On the breaking out of war between France and England in 1778, the English took Pondicherry (held till 1783), and proposed to take Mahê. This Haidar resented: it was in his dominions, and under his protection; but the place was taken in 1779, Haidar angrily protesting. The missionary Schwartz was sent as an envoy to him, but could effect nothing.

27. Triple confederacy against the English.—A confederacy was now formed, consisting of all the Mahratta chiefs (except the Gackwâr), Haidar, and the Nizâm, to drive the English out of India. The confederates might perhaps have succeeded, at least

for a time, if Warren Hastings, with incomparable energy and genius, had not come to the rescue. Mr. Hornby, the President of Bombay, seconded him with admirable vigour and prudence.

28. Haidar was, however, the only one of the confederates that was thoroughly in earnest. Though he was in his seventy-eighth year, he personally superintended every preparation for the war.

The Second Mysore War, 1780-1784.—Ruthlessly he laid waste to the whole country. Muhammad Ali's commandants treacherously abandoned to him all the forts in his way, and in a few days he was at Conjeveram, fifty miles from Madras. The SECOND MYSORE WAR had begun in good earnest.

The First Battle of Pollilôr.—Sir Hector Munro, who had distinguished himself in Bengâl, was commander-in-chief, with 5000 troops, and Colonel Baillie, in command of 2800 men, was on his way to occupy Guntâr. These bodies of troops should have been united; but Munro allowed Haidar to interpose: the result was that Baillie's force was cut up, and Baillie himself, with about two hundred men, was taken prisoner. Munro was no more than two miles distant, and his appearance on the spot would have converted the disaster into a decisive victory. He now retreated to Madras; and thus ended this memorable campaign of twenty-one days.

29. **Hastings to the rescue.**—A vessel was immediately sent to Calcutta, to bear the tidings to Hastings of the greatest reverse the English arms had ever sustained in India.

He hesitated not a moment, but bent all his energies to the one task of saving the Carnatic for the English.

In three weeks an army under the veteran Sir Eyre Coote, now commander-in-chief in Bengâl, was on its way to Madras, with fifteen lakhs of rupees for the use of the army. Coote reached Madras on 5th November, but was not able to take the field till the 17th of January 1781. Meanwhile Haidar had besieged Arcot, and after six weeks took it, through the treachery of its Brâhman commandant. (**Wandiwash.**) Lieutenant Flint defended Wandiwash in a manner that reminds us of Clive's defence of Arcot; but he was allowed to remain unrewarded.

The Battle of Porto Novo, 1781.—Coote marched towards *Cuddalôre*, but was obliged to remain inactive for four months for want of provisions. Haidar now determined to engage him, and, marching 100 miles in two days and a half, took up a strong position near *Porto Novo*. Coote instantly attacked him, and, after a battle which lasted six hours, obtained a decisive victory. Haidar lost 10,000 men, and fled, almost alone, from the field of battle. Tippû immediately raised the siege of Wandiwash, which the heroic Flint had thus saved.

30. The Second great Land March.—Meanwhile, for the second time, Hastings had sent a large army by land to aid a distant presidency. Some Brâhman Sepoys had refused to go by sea; and had mutinied, with circumstances of peculiar atrocity. To remove the difficulty of a sea voyage, Hastings sent them along the coast by land, a distance of 700 miles.

Colonel Pearce marched on the 7th of January 1781; and, though he lost a great number of men by cholera in Orissa, reached Pulicat in July. Coote, by a masterly movement, effected a junction with this force on the 2d of August.

The Second Battle of Pollilôr, August 1781.—Haidar met Coote's combined forces at the same spot where Baillie had been defeated, and on the anniversary of that day, according to the lunar year. His astrologers promised him another victory on that lucky spot, and on that auspicious day (August 27th), Haidar lost 2000 men and Coote 400; but the result, though favourable to the English, was not decisive.

31. Battle of Sôlinghar, September 27th.—A third great battle was fought at Sôlinghar, near Vellore, 27th September. Coote's victory here was complete. Haidar's loss was 5000 men, while that of the English did not exceed 100.

32. Lord Macartney, 1781.—Lord Macartney now succeeded as Governor of Madras. War had been declared with Holland, in consequence of the Dutch having joined the 'armed neutrality,' a confederacy which aimed at destroying the maritime supremacy of Great Britain. Haidar Ali at once began to negotiate

with the Dutch^{*} authorities at Negapatam, who gladly made a treaty with him. Lord Macartney, having a force collected from all sides, without the consent of Sir Eyre Coote, sent Sir Henry Munro; and, with the co-operation of the fleet, Negapatam was attacked and taken on the 12th of November. Stores and goods of great value were found there. The noble harbour and town of Trincomali, in Ceylon, was taken from the Dutch in January 1782.

At the Peace of Versailles, in 1783, these conquests were finally made over to England.

33. Defeat of Colonel Braithwaite.—At this time Colonel Braithwaite, deceived by treacherous spies, was defeated by Tippû, with an overwhelming force, on the banks of the Coleroon, after a heroic struggle of twenty-six hours. To counter-balance this, the garrison of Tellichêri, after having been besieged for eighteen months, made a sortie, and took 1200 of Haidar's troops prisoners, with all their baggage, ammunition, and cannon. This roused the whole Western coast and Kûrg against their detested conqueror.

34. French Naval Expedition in aid of Haidar.—Haidar was now beginning to despond, when a French armament, under Admiral Suffrin, appeared at Pulicat. Admiral Hughes encountered and defeated the Frenchman, who, however, succeeded in landing 2000 French soldiers and 1000 Africans at Porto Novo. Several indecisive engagements were fought by sea and land, of which the chief was before *Arni*, 2d July 1782. The French admiral took Trincomali. Admiral Hughes sailed for Bombay to refit; but his fleet was dispersed by a tremendous gale, October 15th. Admiral Bickerton landed 4000 English troops at Madras, and immediately set sail. Madras was a prey to famine, from which the deaths were 1500 a week. To crown all, Sir Eyre Coote returned at this very crisis to Bengâl. There had been disagreements between him and Lord Macartney, and Coote's temper was irritable. He resigned his command ostensibly from ill-health. (**The Death of Haidar, December 1782.**) The prospects of the English were gloomy on every side,

when tidings arrived of the death of Haidar, on the 7th of December 1782, at the age of eighty, of a carbuncle.

TIPPŪ'S HISTORY TO HIS HUMILIATION, 1782-1792.

35. Tippŭ takes Command, January 1783.—Pŭrnia and Kishna Rāo, two able Brāhman ministers, concealed Haidar's death; and sent word to Tippŭ, who was 400 miles distant on the Malabār coast. Tippŭ reached the army on the Coromandel coast on the 2d of January 1783, and found himself at the head of an army of 100,000 men, with three crores of rupees in his treasury, besides jewels and other valuables to an enormous amount.

36. Tippŭ on the Western Coast, 1783.—Tippŭ, happily for British interests, speedily set out again for the Western Coast, where he imagined the greatest danger to be.

There Major Abingdon had reduced Calicut, and Colonel Humberstone and Colonel Macleod had entrenched themselves at *Ponāni*.

General Matthews had taken possession of Honŭr, five large ships belonging to Tippŭ had been taken, and now Bednŭr was given up to Matthews without a struggle.

Sieges of Bednore and Mangalore, January 30th, 1784.—This intelligence took Tippŭ to the spot with all his army. Bednore was retaken, and subsequently Mangalore, though both were defended with the utmost gallantry. These sieges cost him half his army. Matthews himself was taken prisoner.

37. Meanwhile, General Stuart, who had succeeded Sir Eyre Coote, was not the commander to retrieve the British fortunes in the Carnatic. Moreover, Lord Macartney seems to have injudiciously controlled him.

The veteran Bussy, with 2300 French troops and 5000 French Sepoys, landed at Cuddalŭre to aid Tippŭ, April 10th, 1783. Sir Eyre Coote was again sent from Calcutta to take the command, but the veteran expired in his palanquin two days after his arrival at Madras, April 26th. He was one of the greatest of generals. His gallant services extended from 1756 to 1783.

Tidings happily arrived at this juncture of the Peace of Versailles, in consequence of which Bussy immediately ceased all military operations, and recalled the French officers in Tippû's army. Lord Macartney, who had repeatedly found fault with General Stuart, now sent him to England in arrest.

38. Colonel Fullerton invades Mysore.—An expedition under Colonel Fullerton was now sent into the heart of Mysore.

He took *Curûr*, Dindigal, Pâlgât, and Coimbatôr; and was on the point of marching for Seringapatam, when Lord Macartney sent envoys to Tippû to propose a peace.

Colonel Fullerton, at the head of his army, would have negotiated more effectually before Seringapatam.

The surviving British prisoners, whom Tippû had treated with disgusting and savage cruelty, were released, and all conquests on either side were restored. Baillie, Matthews, and the chief among them had already been murdered in prison by the miscreant.

Treaty of Mangalore, 1784.—Thus ended the Second Mysore War, in the disgraceful treaty of Mangalore (1784).

It required another war to undo the evil effects of this foolish treaty. The day it was signed Tippû assured his French allies that he would as soon as possible renew the war with England.

39. Tippû's ambitious schemes.—Tippû was now at liberty to carry out his own schemes, and it soon became evident that he was ambitious of making himself the greatest, if not the only, ruler in India.

His blind and furious zeal for Muhamnadanism, his mad hatred of the English, and his ferocity, detract from what would otherwise be almost a great character. In his career, lofty ambition, some military genius, and consummate bravery were conspicuous, but he was wild and visionary.

His first two expeditions were into Kanara and Kûrg, whence he carried away upwards of 100,000 persons, whom he forcibly made into Musalmâns, and then distributed among his garrisons. This was their punishment for taking advantage of the late war to assert their independence.

His next step was to assume the title of 'Pādshāh,' which properly belonged to the Emperor of Delhi alone; and from that time his name was read in the public prayers instead of that of Shāh Ālam II., who was the nominal Emperor of Delhi.

40. The Mahrattas and the Nizām combine against him.—Tippû now had to encounter a great and pressing danger. The Mahrattas under the rule of Nânâ Farnavis, and the Nizām, combined to crush him, and to share his dominions between them. The result was that the Mysorean boldly carried the war into the districts north of the Tûmbhadra, took Adônî and Savanûr, and brought the confederates to terms. He agreed to pay arrears of tribute, and to restore the captured towns, while they abandoned the war, acknowledging him sole ruler up to the Tûmbhadra.

41. Tippû at his zenith of power.—Tippû was now beside himself with pride. He forthwith made an expedition into the Malabâr district, where he offered the Nâyars the option of death or the Kurân.

He thus converted or expelled the whole population; and destroyed, according to his own account, 8000 temples.

There is no doubt that Tippû, at this period, even aimed at becoming a kind of prophet in the estimation of the people.

Lord Cornwallis could not interfere, unless Tippû should first violate the treaty subsisting between himself and the English.

Tippû attacks Travancore.—This the infatuated Mysorean soon did. Travancore, protected by the Ghâts and by its lines (a wall and ditch covering the whole frontier), had hitherto escaped the horrors of war. Its Râja had formed a defensive alliance with the English a few years before. Tippû now found out various grievances which rendered it necessary for him to punish the Travancore Râja. The harbouring of some fugitive Nâyars was the crowning injury. Accordingly, in December 1789, he made an attack on the Travancore lines; but was repulsed with immense loss.

42. Lord Cornwallis interferes.—Lord Cornwallis now, of course, interfered. A treaty was signed by the Nizâm, in

which he ceded Guntûr, according to the terms of the treaty of 1768; and an arrangement was made by which he was to co-operate in the war against Tippû, and to share in the territory which might be taken from him. The Mahratta Government were also invited to join the confederacy, and were to share in the spoil. Nânâ Farnavis consented to this; for his fear and hatred of Tippû overcame even his reluctance to co-operate with the English.

43. The Third Mysore War, 1790-1792.—The Marquis now informed Tippû that his conduct in attacking an ally of England had made him an enemy of the British power. General Medows began the campaign in such a way as to show that an abler general was needed to cope with Tippû. Lord Cornwallis himself then came down from Calcutta to take command of the army; which advanced up the Ghâts at once by the Mûgli Pass, having deceived Tippû (who was lingering near Pondicherry, anxious to conclude an alliance with the French) by a pretended march to Ambûr.

Bangalôre capitulated on the 21st of March. (**Battle of Arikêra, 1791.**) Tippû now marched to defend his capital, and on the 13th of May, at Arikêra, a short distance from Seringapatam, was fought a battle, in which Tippû sustained a complete defeat.

44. Delay in taking Seringapatam.—Seringapatam would now have been taken, but the British force and the Nizâm's contingent were in want of every necessary; and Lord Cornwallis was obliged to return towards Madras. A day after his homeward march had begun, the Mahrattas came up. Their dilatoriness had mainly caused the failure of the campaign; Harî Pant, their general, was intent only on plunder.

45. Hartley and Little, December 8th, 1790.—Meanwhile two officers had especially distinguished themselves. These were Colonel Hartley and Captain Little. The former defeated Husain Ali before Calicut, taking him prisoner, with 2500 of his men. Hartley's force was only 1500 strong. His loss was 52.

Captain Little took *Simoga*, after thirty-six hours' hard fight-

ing. The Mahrattas perpetrated horrible cruelties on the wretched inhabitants, after the English had taken the fort. General Abercrombie, Governor of Bombay, reduced the whole province of Malabâr.

46. Lord Cornwallis employed the remainder of the year in clearing the Baramahâl, and in reducing Tippû's fortresses, deemed by the Mysoreans impregnable, but which were taken with ease by the British troops.

The First Siege of Seringapatam, 1792.—In January 1792, the Governor-General's arrangements were complete, and the British army took the field with a splendour and completeness of equipment which astonished all India. Hari Pant, with a small body of troops, and the Nizâm's son with 8000 men, showy but unserviceable, joined Lord Cornwallis, and on the 5th of February the siege began. Tippû had strengthened his defences to the utmost. They consisted of three lines protected by 300 cannon, the earthworks being covered by an impenetrable hedge of thorn. These works were stormed on the night of the 6th, with the loss of 530 killed and wounded. Tippû lost in killed, wounded, and deserters, 20,000 men.

The siege was pressed on, and Tippû at length, by the advice of his officers, acceded to the terms dictated by Lord Cornwallis. He was to cede half his territories, to pay three crores of rupees, besides thirty lakhs to the Mahrattas, and to give up two of his sons as hostages.

47. The Nizâm's troops and the Mahrattas had rendered no assistance, and had even treacherously corresponded with the enemy, but Lord Cornwallis divided the territory and the indemnity money scrupulously between them. The English territorial gain was (1.) the district of Dindigal; (2.) the Baramahâl; and (3.) the province of Malabâr. Kûrg was restored to its own Râja.

Thus gloriously for the English ended their Third Mysore War, February 1792.

TIPPÛ'S HISTORY FROM HIS HUMILIATION TO HIS DEATH.
1792-1799.

48. **Peace, 1792-1798.**—Six years elapsed without any breach

of this treaty,* and the two hostages were sent back to their father in 1794.

Tippû* meanwhile strengthened himself, nursed his hatred against the English, and entertained a body of French officers, by whom his army, in all its branches, was brought to a state of great efficiency.

The Mauritius Proclamation, 1798.—The *Mauritius Proclamation* brought matters to an issue. This was put forth by the French Governor of the Mauritius, and announced that envoys from Tippû had arrived in the island, proposing an alliance offensive and defensive, and asking for troops in order to expel the English from India.

‘Citizen Tippû’!—A French frigate at this time landed 100 men, civil and military, at Mangalôre. These, on reaching Seringapatam, organised a Jacobin Club under the auspices of ‘Citizen Tippû,’ planted a tree of liberty, crowned it with the cap of equality, and proclaimed the French Republic, one and indivisible!

49. Lord Wellesley’s determination to put down Tippû.—The Marquess Wellesley at once called on Tippû to disavow his embassy to the Mauritius, and meanwhile prepared for war. The Madras Presidency was weak in men, and almost bankrupt, the Nizâm and the Mahrattas could not be relied on. The Governor-General resolved that England should at any cost retain the mastery.

50. The Nizâm joins the alliance.—Lord Wellesley first negotiated with the Nizâm, and a subsidiary alliance was the result (1798). Captain Malcolm (Sir John) contrived to arrange the placing of the Nizâm’s army on its new footing (including the elimination of the French element), without loss of life.

The Peshwâ, while refusing to form a subsidiary alliance, gave an assurance of his fidelity to the existing engagements.

51. The Fourth Mysore War, 1799.—Bonaparte was now in Egypt. The directors wrote out, authorising a war with Tippû, and the Marquess Wellesley made all his arrangements with promptitude, and sent down to Madras His Majesty’s 33rd

Regiment, commanded by his own brother, Colonel Wellesley (afterwards the Duke of Wellington). He himself arrived in Madras, December 31, 1798, and proceeded to negotiate with Tippû, who tried to procrastinate, and actually wrote to Zemân Shâh, inviting him to join the Holy War, in which the infidel English were 'to become food for the swords of the pious warriors.'

Bonaparte wrote him, that 'he had arrived on the borders of the Red Sea, with an innumerable and invincible army, full of the desire of delivering him from the iron yoke of England.

52. Tippû treated the Governor-General's envoy, Major Doveton's embassy, with contempt, and Lord Wellesley at length informed him that General Harris, who was advancing with an army into Mysore, would be prepared to receive any embassy he might send.

The Marquess Wellesley and Lord Clive (Governor of Madras, son of the great Clive), by unparalleled efforts had raised and fully equipped an army of 20,800 men, of whom 6000 were Europeans. To this was added 10,000 of the Nizâm's cavalry, with 10,000 foot, under European officers, led by Colonel Wellesley and Captain Malcolm, though nominally commanded by the Nizâm's son. General Harris was commander-in-chief of the whole combined forces. Colonels Read and Brown were in the Baramahâl and Coimbatôr, and General Stuart led the Bombay troops, who marched from Cannanûr through Kûrg to *Periaputam* (Priyapatnam=*beloved town*). General Hartley, and Colonels Montessor and Dunlop, were with this army.

I. The Battle of Sedasîr, March 6, 1799.—At Sedasîr, a few miles from Periapatam, the first battle was fought. Tippû's forces, commanded by himself, were routed with the loss of 2000 men.

53. **General Harris's staff.**—General Harris (under whom were, among others, General Baird, General Floyd, Colonel Wellesley, Lieutenant-Colonel Barry Close, Lieutenant-Colonel Agnew, and Captain Malcolm) marched through the valley of Ambûr and the Baramahâl to Râyacotta, where he encamped March 4. From thence he advanced to Malavelli, twenty-six

miles from Seringapatam. Here took place the second struggle. The result was a loss to the Sultân of 1000 men, while the English lost only sixty-nine.

Crossing the C  v  ri.—General Harris now crossed the C  v  ri to the south of Seringapatam. This movement, secretly carried out, was unexpected by Tipp  , and threw him into a state of deep despondency.

54. The whole united army was before Seringapatam by the 15th of April. Tipp   was now in despair. He consulted soothsayers, caused prayers to be offered in Muhammadan mosques and in Hind   temples, sent vakils to propose terms of peace, and then, in rage and mortification, refused to yield to the terms imposed by Lord Harris. No trace of generalship, or of common sense, is discernible in his behaviour at this period.

The storming of Seringapatam.—The breach on the south-western face of the fortifications was reported practicable on the evening of May the 3rd. On the 4th, General Baird, who had for four years been a prisoner in the dungeons of the city, led the troops to the assault. Colonel Sherbrooke commanded the right column, Colonel Dunlop the left, and Colonel Wellesley the reserve.

The city was taken.

The death of Tipp  .—The body of the Sult  n himself was found in a palanquin under an archway, beneath a heap of slain. It was buried with military honours the next day.

55. The surrender of the chief officers.—P  rnia, the minister; Kamr-ud-d  n, the chief officer; Fatih Haider, the Sult  n's eldest son; and all the principal officers, civil and military, now surrendered themselves. The whole kingdom lay at the feet of the victor. Immense stores, about a million sterling in money, and many costly jewels, were taken in the city, and the collection of State papers revealed the surprising extent and variety of the Sult  n's intrigues against the hated English.

Colonel Wellesley was made commandant of the captured city, in which he soon restored order and confidence, and the Governor-General proceeded to make arrangements for the disposal of the conquered kingdom.

56. This conquest undoubtedly rendered England supreme in the Dakhan. It was the first manifestation of that wonderful energy with which English wars in India have ever since been conducted. It remained for the victors to show an example of moderation in the hour of triumph. The arrangements made were the following :—

1st. The family of Tippû was justly set aside, and its members were removed to Vellore, where a suitable provision was made for them.

Restoration of the ancient dynasty.—2nd. The representative of the ancient Hindû royal family, a child of five years of age, was living with his mother in an obscure hut in the suburbs. They were brought forth from their obscurity, and the child, whose name was Krishnarâj Udayâr Bahâdar, was put upon the throne.

3rd. The Company took possession of Kanara, Coimbatôr, and the Wynaad.

4th. The districts of Gurrancotta, Gûti, and others near Haidarâbâd, were made over to the Nizâm.

5th. Some districts were offered to the Peshwâ, but rejected by him.

MYSORE UNDER THE HINDÛ DYNASTY AND BRITISH CHIEF COMMISSIONERS, 1799——.

The new Râja's history.—The history of the ancestor of the new Râja is curious. When the puppet Râja, Châm Râj, died (in 1775), the direct male line was extinct. Haidar collected a number of children belonging to all the families related to the royal house, and selected a little boy, giving him the name of Châm Râj.

The Mysore royal family.—He died of small-pox in 1795, and Tippû, resolving no longer to maintain the pageant of a Râja, turned the widow and her son, then two years of age, out of the palace, and caused them to be conveyed to a miserable hovel in the suburbs of the city. This boy was the Râja now put on the throne by the Governor-General.

57. Purnia.—During the minority of the Râja, the able

minister Pûrnia conducted the affairs of the kingdom. General Wellesley remained, during the intervals of his campaigns, till March 1805, to discharge the duties of Commissioner of Mysore, and by his administration conferred permanent benefits upon the people. Colonel (Sir Barry) Close was the first Resident at the new court.

58. Pûrnia's retirement.—In 1812, Pûrnia retired, and a sum of £2,812,500 was then found in the treasury. Pûrnia was handsomely pensioned, and Linga Râj was made Diwân, with diminished powers. The Râja soon dissipated the treasure, and oppressed his subjects to such an extent that a rebellion broke out.

Everything was venal. The troops were unpaid, and the Râyats were ground down by excessive and arbitrary taxation.

59. The British Government interferes.—In 1832, the British Government interfered, as the treaty of 1799 required them to do. The mismanagement had been so gross, and the Râja had been so entirely deaf to advice pressed upon him, that it was felt that the Governor-General could do nothing but take the entire management of the state from his unworthy hands. Sir Thomas Munro, when Governor of Madras, had visited Mysore, and personally urged amendment upon the Raja, but in vain. Sir Mark Cubbon was chief commissioner under the new system from 1836 to 1861. A liberal pension was assigned to the Râja. The country has been exceptionally prosperous from that time. The administration reports are of exceeding value. Mr. L. B. Bowring, who had charge of the province from 1862 to 1870, introduced many important reforms, and, in fact, remodelled the whole administration.

60. The new Mahârâja.—The Râja died March 27, 1868, without heirs. He had, however, adopted, in 1865, a distant relative called Châm Râjendra. In 1867 Her Majesty's Government was pleased to recognise this adoption, and the young chief has been proclaimed Mahârâja of Mysore.

Mr. Bowring was followed by Sir Richard J. Meade, who was succeeded by Mr. Charles B. Saunders, and he by Mr. James D. Gordon, C.S.I.

END OF HISTORY.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLES OF INDIAN HISTORY

N.B.—The most important dates are marked (*).

I.—PREHISTORIC TIMES, Ch. i. iv.

B.C.	
1400	Arrangement of the Vêdas by VYÂSA.
1400-1300	The war of the Mahâ Bhârata. <i>Sahâ Dêva</i> .
1308	Invasion of India by Sesostris (mythical).
1200	RÂMA's invasion of the Dakhan.
800	The date of MENU.
700	AGASTYA in the South.
543	Ajâta Satru. Death of GOTAMA, or SÂKYA MUNI.

II.—SEMI-HISTORIC PERIOD, FROM THE INVASION OF THE PANJÂB BY THE PERSIANS TO THE RISE OF THE GHAZNÎVIDES, B.C. 518—A.D. 978.

Compare Ch. iv. with Ch. i.

B.C.	
518	Persian invasion under DARIUS HYSTASPES.
400-500	PÂNDYA kingdom of Madura founded.
330	HERÂT founded by Alexander.
326	Invasion of the Panjâb by Alexander the Great.
315	CHANDRA-GUPTA, or Sandracottus.
260-220	ASÔKA, or Piyadâsi, the great patron of Buddhism.
249	The Buddhist Council.
126	Tartars from Trans-Oxiana conquer the Bactrian kingdom.
57	VIKRAMÂDITYA, king of Ujein.
A.D.	
78	SÂLIVÂHANA, king of Paithun.
314	Tanjore founded.
327-473	YÂVANAS in Orissa.
524	Noushîrvân.
600	The JAIN system founded.
700-800	SANKARA ACHÂRYA.
1050	KÛN PÂNDYA in Madura.

III.—THE PRE-MOGUL MUHAMMADAN PERIOD: FROM THE BEGINNING OF AUTHENTIC NATIONAL HISTORY IN INDIA TO 1526. AFGHÂNS, BÂHMÎNÎ, TEIMÛR, BÎJANAGAR, MYSORE, GOA.

See Ch. ii. Introductory Table.

A. D.	
878-1186	The Ghaznivides.
1009	Râmânûja born.
*1022	LÂHORE becomes a <i>Muhammadan city</i> .
1152	Sack of Ghazni by <i>Alld-ud-din Ghôr</i> .
1186-1206	MUHAMMAD OF GHÔR.
1100-1200	Basava.
*1206-1288	The first slave dynasty in Delhi. (KUTB-UD-DÎN.)
1217	GHENGÎZ KHÂN. First Mogul irruption.
1288-1321	The Khiljîs.
*1294	<i>The first Muhammadan invasion of the Dakhan.</i>
1306, 1309, 1310, 1312 } 1318	<i>Malik Kâfûr's invasions of the Dakhan.</i>
1321-1412	Malabâr conquered by Khûsrû.
1323	The TUGHLAKS.
1336	<i>Warangal taken by the Muhammadans.</i>
*1347	BÎJANAGAR founded.
	Foundation of the BÂHMÎNÎ kingdom in the Dakhan, till 1526.
*1398	TEIMÛR in Delhi. Second great Mogul expedition.
1482	Bâber.
1486	Bartholomew Diaz.
*1498	VASCO DA GÂMA in Calicut.
1498-1526	The Bâhmanî kingdom breaks up. BÎJAPÛR kingdom founded.
1500	Cabral in Calicut.
1504	<i>Duarte Pacheco in Cochin.</i>
1505-1508	FRANCISCO ALMEYDA, the first Portuguese viceroy.
1507	<i>Châm Râj</i> , the six-fingered, in the Mysore country.
1508-1515	Alphonso ALBUQUERQUE, the second Portuguese viceroy.
1515	Lope Soarez, the third Portuguese viceroy.
1524	<i>Châm Râj</i> , the bald, founds the city of Mysore.

IV.—MOGUL PERIOD. 1526 to 1746.

TWELVE MOGUL EMPERORS.

(I.) THE SIX GREAT MOGULS.

A.D	
1526	The (first great) battle of PANIPAT. BĀBER founds the Mogul empire in India. Mogul emperors. Lōḍīs driven away.
1527	NĀNAK.
1528	SIKRI. The Rājputā conquered. Storming of CHANDĒRĪ.
1530	HUMĀYŪN, the second Mogul.
1535	Champanir stormed.
1538	The siege of Dīū.
1540	Restored Afghāns of the SŪR dynasty.
1541	Xavier in India.
1542	Birth of Akbar.
1545	JUAN DE CASTRO, Portuguese viceroy.
1555-1556	Return and death of Humāyūn.
1556	Accession of AKBAR, the third Mogul.
1559	Nāyakar rulers of Madura till 1736.
1560	Akbar, 18 years old, assumes the government.
	<i>The real Mogul conquest of India.</i>
	— 1567. Conquers his own feudatories.
	— 1572. Subdues the Rājputā.
	— 1573. Conquers Gujarāt.
	— 1581. Fort of Attock built.
	— 1592. Annexes Bengāl, Bahār, and Orissa.
	— 1592. Conquest of Sind.
	— 1594. Afghānistān subdued.
	— 1599-1601 Akbar in the Dakhan
1565	The battle of Talikôt (Telh cotta).
1570	Dakhan Muhammadan confederacy against the Portuguese.
1580	Foundation of OUDIPŪR.
1580-1656	Downfall of the Portuguese.
1583	The first ENGLISH in India.
1589-1612	FERISHTA in Bijapūr.
1594	The Dutch in India.
1595-1599	Two sieges of Ahmadnagar. CHAND Bībī.
1599	Synod of Diamper.
1600	THE INCORPORATION OF THE BRITISH INDIA COMPANY.
1603	Assassination of ĀB-UL-FAZL.
1605	Death of Akbar. JEHĀNGĪR, the fourth Mogul.
1608	Hawkins in Sūrat.

1610	Seringapatam became the capital of Mysore.
1614	Marriage of the emperor with NŪR JEHÂN. She died in 1646.
1615-1618	<i>Sir Thomas Roe</i> , ambassador.
1626	Death of <i>Malik Ambar</i> .
*1627	Jehângir's death. Accession of SHÂH JEHÂN, the fifth Mogul emperor.
	Birth of SIVAJI.
1631	Portuguese driven out of Bengál.
1636	<i>Mr. Boughton</i> in Delhi.
1637	Ahmadnagar taken by Shâh Jehân.
1640	MADRAS founded.
1646	TORNA.
1657	Civil war breaks out between the sons of the emperor.
1658	AURUNZIB, the sixth Mogul emperor, imprisons his father and seizes the empire.
1659	<i>Tirumala Nayaka</i> died in Madura. Murder of <i>Afzal Khân</i> .
1663	Sack of Sûrat.
1664	FRENCH in India.
1666	Death of Shâh Jehân. Sivaji in Delhi.
1668	BOMBAY made over to the Company.
1673-1704	Chick Dêo Râj in Mysore
1674	Sivaji enthroned.
1675	SIKHS.
1676	Sivaji in the Carnatic
1680	Death of Sivaji.
1683-1707	Aurungzib's wars in the Dakhan.
1686	<i>Bijapûr</i> taken.
1687	<i>Golconda</i> taken.
1689	SAMBÂJÎ, the second Mahratta Râja, slain by Aurungzib.
1700	Aurungzib in Satârâ.
1702	Birth of HAIDAR ALI of Mysore.
(II.) THE SIX LESSER MOGULS.	
*1707	Death of Aurungzib. Accession of SHÂH ÂLAM I., the seventh Mogul.
1708	Liberation of Sâhu.
1712	JEHANDAR SHÂH, the eighth Mogul.

A. D.	
1713	The SLEADS, Hussein and Abdullah Mhân put ZULFIKÂR KHÂN and the emperor to death, and set up FARUKHSHIR (1713-1719), the ninth Mogul.
1714	BÂLÂJÎ VISHWANÂTH, the first great PESHWÂ.
1716	<i>Gabriel Hamilton</i> at the court of Farukhshir. The Sikhs almost exterminated.
1717	Mahrattas under Bâlâjî Vishwanâth in Delhi.
1719	Two puppet emperors, Rafi-ud-darâjât the tenth Mogul, and Rafi-ud-dowla, the eleventh Mogul. MUHAMMAD SHÂH, the twelfth Mogul, placed on the throne by the Seids.
1720	Battle of SHÂHPÛR. Muhammad Shâh is really emperor to 1748. Death of Bâlâjî Vishwanâth. BÂJÎ RÂO I., the second PESHWÂ.
1724	NIZÂM-UL-MULK and SÂDAT KHÂN become virtually independent in the Dakhan and in Oudh respectively. <i>The great Mahratta chiefs rise to importance.</i>
1725	ROBERT CLIVE born.
1732	Warren Hastings born.
1736	CHANDÂ SAHËB in Trichinopoly.
*1738	Invasion of NÂDIR SHÂH.
1739	<i>Bassîn stormed by the Mahrattas.</i>
*1740	The first battle of AMBËR. Death of Bâjî Râo I. He is succeeded by BÂLÂJÎ BÂJÎ RÂO, third PESHWÂ.
1741-1754	DUPLEX in Pondicherry.
1744	Robert CLIVE lands in India.
1744-1761	<i>Struggles of French and English in the Carnatic.</i>
1746	<i>Madras taken by the French.</i> <i>Paradis gains a signal victory.</i>

V.—THE ENGLISH PERIOD.

A. D.	
*1748	Death of Muhammad Shâh. Ahmad Shâh succeeds, the thirteenth Mogul. Death of Nizâm-ul-Mulk. Death of Sâhu, the third Mahratta Râja. Battle of Sirhind. <i>The Two Ahmads.</i> LAWRENCE comes to India.
1749	Siege of <i>Déonhalli</i> .
1750	TIPPÛ born. WARREN HASTINGS landed in India.

A. D.	
1750	The second battle of AMBÛR. Death of Anwâr-ud-dîn.
*1751	Defence of Arcot.
1752	Trichinopoly relieved. Chandâ Sahêb slain. Clive's triumph.
1754	Ahmad Shâh blinded and imprisoned. Alamgîr II., the fourteenth Mogul, succeeds. Dupleix leaves India.
1756	CLIVE and WATSON on the Western coast. <i>The Black Hole Massacre.</i> Seringapatam besieged by the Mahrattas.
*1757	AHMAD SHÂH ABDÂLÎ in Delhi. PLASSEY.
1758	Ragobâ in the Panjâb. LALLY lands in India.
1759	Âlamgîr II. assassinated. SIRÂH ÂLAM II., the fifteenth Mogul emperor.
1760	Battle of Wandiwash (January 22). Udghîr. Resignation of MÎR JAFFÎR. <i>Mir Kâsim</i> elevated. Clive sails for England. <i>Haidar makes himself master of Mysore.</i>
*1761	The (FOURTH) battle of PÂNIPAT. <i>French power destroyed in India.</i> Death of Bâlâji Bâlî Râo. Accession of MÂDU RÂo, the fourth PESHWÂ.
1763	<i>The Massacre at Patna.</i> Haidar takes <i>Bednôre.</i>
1764	The battle of <i>Buxâr.</i> Death of Dupleix.
*1764-1765	THE MEMORABLE TEN MONTHS.
1765	Haidar defeated by Mâdu Râo. <i>Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa</i> ceded to the English.
1766-1769	<i>The First Mysore War.</i>
1767-1772	Clive's reforms.
1769	Haidar at Madras. The French E.C. dissolved.
1770	Mâdu Râo in the Carnatic.
1771	Shâh Âlam II. returns to Delhi.
*1772	Hastings President of Calcutta. Death of Mâdu Râo.
1773	THE REGULATING ACT.
	The fifth Peshwâ, NÂRÂYANA RÂo, is murdered.
*1774	The FIRST GOVERNOR-GENERAL; see Table. Rohilla war. Death of Clive.
	The sixth Peshwâ, MÂDU RÂo NÂRÂYANA, succeeds.
*1775	THE FIRST MAHARATTA WAR. Treaty of SÛRAT. Battle of Arras.
1776	The execution of <i>Nandkumâr.</i> Treaty of PÛRANDAR. Upton.
1778	Shâh Âlam II. blinded by GHOLÂM KÂDIR.
1779	GODDARD reaches Sûrat. The Convention of WARCÂOM.

A. D.	
*1780	RANJIT SING born.
1782	Treaty of SALBÂI. Death of Haidar.
1783	Peace of Versailles. Dutch possessions fall into the hands of England.
1780-1784	The second MYSORE WAR.
*1784	<i>Pitt's Indian Bill</i> . Sindia in Delhi.
1785	Hastings leaves India. Sindia's claim.
1786-1793	EARL CORNWALLIS, second Governor-General.
1788	The <i>Declaratory Act</i> .
1789	Tippû's attack on the Travancore lines.
1790-1792	The THIRD MYSORE WAR.
1792	Sindia in Pûna. Battle of <i>Lakairi</i> .
1793	Lord TEIGNMOUTH, third Governor-General.
	Renewal of the Company's charter. <i>Lord Cornwallis's PERMANENT SETTLEMENT</i> .
1794	Death of MAHÂDAJÎ SINDIA.
1795	Mutiny of Bengâl officers. KÛRDLÂ.
1796	Elevation of the seventh and last Peshwâ, BÂJÎ RÂO II.
1798	Marquis WELLESLEY, fourth Governor-General.
	Ranjit Sing, Governor of the Panjâb.
*1799	The FOURTH MYSORE WAR. Death of Tippû.
1800	The establishment of the College of Fort William.
	The Tanjôre Râja pensioned. Death of NANÂ FARNAVIS.
1801	The Nuwâb of the Carnatic pensioned.
1802	Holkâr at Pûna. The Peshwâ flies.
1803	TREATY OF BASSEIN.
	<i>Barôda</i> under the Subsidiary System.
	The SECOND MAHRATTA WAR.
	April 20. WELLESLEY reaches Pûna.
	May. The Peshwâ reinstated.
	BATTLES AND SIEGES. ‡
	1. August 12. <i>Ahmadnagar</i> taken (WELLESLEY)
	2. August 29. <i>Coel and Aligarh</i> taken (LAKE).
	3. September 9. <i>Jâlma</i> taken (STEVENSON).
	4. September 11. Battle of <i>Delhi</i> (LAKE).
	5. September 7. <i>Champnîr</i> taken (MURRAY).
	6. September 23. Battle of <i>Assai</i> (WELLESLEY).
	7. October 10. <i>Kuttack</i> taken (HARCOURT).
	8. October 13. Conquest of <i>Bundêlkhand</i> complete (POWELL).
	9. October 18. <i>Agra</i> taken (LAKE).
	10. October 21. <i>Burhânpûr and Asirghar</i> (STEVENSON)
	11. November 1. <i>Luswârt</i> (LAKE).
	12. November 28. <i>Argdom</i> (WELLESLEY).
	13. December 15. <i>Gâwulgarh</i> taken (STEVENSON).
	December 17. Treaty of <i>Dêo-gdom</i> .
	December 30. Treaty of <i>Sirjî Anjengdom</i> .
1804	The THIRD MAHRATTA WAR.

A. D.	
1805	Lord Cornwallis's second administration; his death at <i>Ghâtâpûr</i> . <i>Sir George Barlow</i> , acting Governor-General.
	First siege of <i>Bhartpûr</i> .
1806	Accession of Akbar II., sixteenth Mogul. The <i>Vellôre mutiny</i> .
1807	The Earl of Minto, sixth Governor-General.
1808-1809	The Madras mutiny.
1810	<i>Mauritius</i> taken.
1812-1814	Sir Stamford Raffles, Governor of Java, etc.
1813	Renewal of the Charter. Trade to India thrown open. Bishop of Calcutta appointed.
1814	The Marquis of Hastings, or Earl of Moira, seventh Governor-General. The war with NIPAL.
*1817	FOURTH MAHRATTA WAR. Battle of MEHIDDÛR. <i>Pond, Nâgppûr</i> .
1818	End of the PINDÂRI War. Treaty of <i>Mundasôr</i> , Satârâ.
1818	Death of Warren Hastings. ASIRGHAR taken.
1823	Lord AMHERST, eighth Governor-General.
1823-1826	FIRST BURMESE WAR. Treaty of <i>Yendabû</i> (February 1826).
1824	The Straits Settlements ceded to English by the Dutch.
1826	Storming of <i>Bhartpûr</i> .
1827	Death of SIR THOMAS MUNRO. D. R. Sindia. Lord WILLIAM BENTINCK, ninth Governor- General.
1828-1835	
1829	Major Sleeman appointed commissioner of Thug gee. Abolition of SATI.
1831	Meeting between Ranjit Sing and Lord William Bentinck at RÛPAR. The Indus thrown open.
1833-1834	Renewal of the Charter. Trade with China thrown open.
1834	Conquest of KÊRG.
1836	Liberation of the Indian Press by SIR CHARLES METCALFE.
1836	March. Lord AUCKLAND, tenth Governor- General, to 1842.

A.D. 1837	Accession of Muhammad Badādar, seventeenth and last Mogul emperor.
1838	Defence of <i>Herat</i> .
1839	THE AFGHĀN EXPEDITION. Death of Ranjīt Sing.
1840-1842	The Opium War.
1841	Outbreak in Kābul, November 2.
1842	Earl of ELLENBOROUGH, eleventh Governor-General. Conquest of SIND. Afghān disasters retrieved.
1843	GWĀLIOR. Battles of MAHĀRĀJPOŪR and PUNJĀB.
1844	Lord HARDINGE, twelfth Governor-General.
1845-1846	THE FIRST PANJĀB WAR.
1845	<i>Tranquebar</i> and <i>Serampore</i> bought from the Danes.
1848	EARL OF DALHOUSIE, thirteenth Governor-General.
1848-1849	SECOND PANJĀB WAR. Annexation of <i>Panjāb</i> .
1852-1853	THE SECOND BURMESE WAR. Annexation of PEGU.
1853	Sir George Lawrence, chief commander of the Panjāb. Nāgpur lapsed.
	The opening of the first Indian railway.
1856-1862	LORD CANNING, fourteenth Governor-General. Annexation of <i>Oudh</i> . <i>Tanjōr</i> lapsed.
1856-1857	War with Persia. War with China.
1857-1858	THE SEPOY MUTINIES break out, May 10. DELHI retaken.
1858	INDIA UNDER THE CROWN.
1862	LORD ELGIN, fifteenth Governor-General.
1864-1869	Sir JOHN LAWRENCE, sixteenth Governor-General.
1868	Death of the Rāja of Mysore.
1869	The Earl of MAYO, seventeenth Governor-General.
1872	Lord Mayo assassinated. Lord Northbrook viceroy.
1873	Gaekwar of Baroda deposed.
1875-1876	Prince of Wales visited India.
1876	Lord Lytton viceroy.
1877	Queen proclaimed Empress.
1876-1877	Terrible Famine.
1878-1879	Afghān War.
1880	Lord Ripon viceroy.
1880	Defeat at Maiwand.
1884	General Roberts's march from Kabul to Kandahar.
1885	Lord Dufferin succeeded.
1885-1886	Bengal Tenancy Bill.
1888	Burmese War. Burma annexed.
	Peaceful settlement with Russia.

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GATE of Mecca, name of Sûrat.
— of Tears = Bâb-el-Mandeb.

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THE MAHÂBHÂRATA, p. 3.

Its main subject is the war of the *Pândavas* and *Kauravas*. Their common ancestor was Bharata, king of Hastinâpura.

The following table will be useful :—

Bharata	
Dhritarashtra	Pându = Kunt
A hundred sons, the Kurus or Kauravas ; the eldest son was Duryodhana	Yudhisthira, Bhîma, Arjuna, Nakula, Sahadev
	Draupadi was their joint wife. These were the <i>Pândus</i> or <i>Pândavas</i> . Their tutor was Drona.

Pându, though he was the younger, succeeded *Bharata* ; but abdicated the kingdom in favour of *Dhritarashtra*, and retired to the Himalayas, where he died. His sons returned, and *Yudhisthira* was installed as his uncle's coadjutor and successor. The jealousy of *Duryodhana* and his brothers procured at length from their blind old father the banishment of the *Pândus*.

These latter won *Draupadi*, daughter of *Drupada*, king of *Panchâla*, by their skill in archery, displayed at the *Swayamvara* (see Index), and building *Indraprastha*, became powerful kings. But *Yudhisthira* lost everything at the gambling-table to his rival *Duryodhana* ; and with difficulty the *Pandavas* and *Draupadi* were permitted to go into the forest as exiles. After twelve years of wandering, with *Krishna* as their powerful ally, the *Pândus* met their rivals on the field of *Kurukshetra* (the Kurus' field), and the great battle, which lasted eighteen days, and in which all the chivalry of India was engaged, was fought. The issue was that only three of the Kurus and the five *Pândavas* with their wife survived. In the hour of their triumph the latter retired to the Himalayas, unable to survive the death of their kindred.

There are many important and beautiful episodes in this vast poem, which extends to one hundred thousand lines.

MAHRATTI character, 83.

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- - wars with the Afghans, ch. iv.
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- - wars with the Nizâm, 112.
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MÂPILLAS (Moplas), a tribe of Sunni Muhammadans in the province of Kanara, the descendants of Arab fathers and Nayar mothers.

MASSACRE, 173.

— the Black-Hole, 169.

MASSACRE at Patna, 181.

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— of Oudh, 182.

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PÂLI, the language of ancient Magadha, the sacred language of the Buddhists and Jains.

PÂNDUS. See Mahâ-Bhârata.

PÂNDYA kingdom, 71.

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PÂRSIS, or fire-worshippers, driven by persecution from Persia in the fourth century, they settled in Ormuz, and thence passed over the Western Coast, where they are numerous and wealthy.

PATAN = Afghân.

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PHILOSOPHY—

The six systems of Hindû Philosophy are—

I. The NYÂYA, whose author was Gôtama. Resembles the dialectics of Aristotle. Idealistic.

II. The VAISÊSHIKA, whose author was Kanâda, the Hindû Democritus. Epicurean and heterodox.

III. The MIMÂMSÂ. Canons of interpretation. A system of orthodox vedic exegesis. Its author was Jaimini.

IV. The VÊDANTA. A system of Pantheism and fatalism.

V. The SÂNKH'YA, whose author was Kapila. The sceptical school. Sensual, materialistic, and atheistic. Buddhism and the Jain system are most nearly allied to this philosophy.

PHILOSOPHY—continued.

VI. The PATANJALA. Theistic, ascetic. The mystical school.

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PRÂKRIT, a corrupt, colloquial dialect of Sanskrit.

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QUEEN, the only one that ever reigned in Delhi, 18.

QUEEN'S Government assumes the direct administration of India, 247, 251.

RANJÎT SINGH, 257.

RAILWAYS in India, 236.

RAJASUYA, a sacrifice performed by one who claimed to be a universal monarch, and who feasted and offered in the midst of his tributary princes.

RÂJPUTS, 38, 51.

RÂMÂYANA, 3.

This is the great legend of the solar race. Dasaratha, king of Oudh (Ayodhya), had four sons, Râma (now worshipped as an incarnation of Vishnu), Lakshmana, Bharata, and Satrugna. The mother of Bharata was Kaikéyi. Sumitrâ was the mother of the other three. Râma was married to Sîtâ, daughter of Janaka, king of Mithila (Tirhât); and by the voice of the people was designated his father's coadjutor. Kaikéyi, to whom the uxorious king had promised whatever she should ask, demanded the banishment of Râma and the appointment of her son Bharata. Râma accordingly departed into exile, attended by the faithful Sîtâ and Lakshmana. The wanderers, after traversing the districts around the Jamma and the Ganges, at length reached the great forest of Dandaka, to the south. Dasaratha now died, worn out with grief, and Bharata nobly refusing to supplant Râma, the shoe of the latter was placed on the vacant throne. The exiles now visited Agastya, the mighty Rishi, and Râma received from him a bow and arrows of magical power. Proceeding southward, they met with Râkshasas, incarnate demons of huge size. One of

RĀMĀYANA—continued.

th's race, called *Ravana*, was King of Ceylon at the time, and he carried off *Sitā* to his palace in that island.

Rāma, after destroying an army of fourteen thousand *Rākshasas*, hastened to Ceylon to recover his wife. His allies were the monkeys, of whom an innumerable host accompanied him. *Sugriva* was the monkey-king, whose capital was on the site where *Bejanagar* afterwards stood; and the famous *Hanumān* was the monkey-general. This latter passed over to Ceylon in search of *Sitā*, and set the island on fire. In extinguishing the flames he blackened his face; but *Sitā* promised that on his return he should not be singular on that account, as he should find all his race with black faces.

A bridge was then constructed from the mainland to Ceylon. This was at *Ramnād*, the zamindār of which claims the title of *Setu-pati*, or guardian of the bridge. *Ravana* was slain, *Sitā* freed, and her purity ascertained by an ordeal of fire. The whole party returned in triumph to *Ayodha*, the fourteen appointed years of exile being accomplished, and *Rāma* ascended his ancestral throne.

This poem, in which great beauties are found, is popular and influential in every part of India.

RECALL of Lord Ellenborough, 233.
— of Lord William Bentinck, 206, 215.

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REVOLUTIONS in Bengāl, 177-184.

RYOTWĀR system (=rāyatwār)—

* Under the *Ryotwar* system every registered holder of land is recognised as its proprietor, and pays direct to the Government; he can sublet, transfer, sell, or mortgage it; he cannot be ejected by the Government, and so long as he pays the fixed assessment, he has the option of annually increasing or diminishing the cultivation on his holding; or, he may entirely abandon it. In unfavourable seasons remissions of assessment are granted for loss of produce. The assessment is fixed in money, and does not vary from year to year, except when water is obtained from a Government source or irrigation; nor is any addition made to the rent for improvements effected at the ryot's own expense; he has, therefore, all the benefit of a perpetual lease without its responsibilities, as he can at any time

RYOTWĀR system—continued.

throw up his lands; but cannot be ejected so long as he pays his dues, and he receives assistance in difficult seasons. The original assessment (in *Madras*) was unfortunately fixed too high; but the reductions and re-assessments made of late years are materially improving the position of the cultivators. An annual settlement is made, not to re-assess the land, but to determine upon how much of his holding the ryot shall pay; when no change occurs in a holding, the ryot is not affected by the annual settlement, and is not required to attend it. The *ryotwār* system may be said essentially to prevail throughout the *Madras* and *Bombay* presidencies, as the zamindār and village renter equally deal with their tenants on this principle.

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SWAYAMVARA (=self-selection). A

princess was in ancient Hindū times allowed to choose a husband for herself from the multitude of suitors, who exhibited their prowess, wealth, and accomplishments before her. Some of the prettiest Hindū stories turn upon this. Thus did *Damayanti* choose *Nala*. *Rāma* won *Sītā*, and *Arjuna* won *Draupadi* at a tournament of this kind.

SYRIAN CATHOLICS. These have existed in Travancore from the third century, A.D. They now number about one hundred and twenty thousand. Their bishops came originally from Persia.

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— of *Dēogāom*, 1803, 124.

— of *Sirji Anjengāom*, 1803, 124.

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— between *Ranjit Sing*, *Shāh Shuja*, and *Lord Auckland*, 1838, 224.

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VĒDAS, 1.

There are nominally four vedas. These are the *ṛj*, *yajur*, *sāma*, and *atharva*. The three former have been studied and translated by European scholars. Each of these consists of *Saṁhitās* or psalms, and *Brahmanas*, or rubrical directions. The *Saṁhitās* of the Rig-veda are the oldest part of the vedas, and enter largely into the composition of the other three. 'To this' (says H. H. Wilson) 'we must go principally, if not exclusively, for correct notions of the oldest and most genuine forms of the institutions, religious or civil, of the Hindus.' They contain about ten thousand stanzas. *Asvini* (god of fire), *Indra* (lord of the firmament), the *Māruṭas* (personified winds), *Vāruṇa* (the god of the sea), *Mitra* (the sun), and the two *Aśvins* (sons of the sun), are the chief deities addressed. The hymns are given as the work of certain inspired psalmists, or *Rishis*. The worship of the ancient Aryans consisted, as the *Saṁhitās* show, of oblations and libations of clarified butter and of the expressed juice of the soma plant (*sarcostema viminalis*).

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